The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 3, 1893.

The Week.

THE greatest publicity should be given to the statement furnished by Comptroller Eckels concerning the condition of the national banks. The number of these banks is about 3,900, and only 105 of them have suspended. Of these, 14 have already resumed payments, and several more are in a way to do so, the applications for permission to resume numbering 58. Only 33 are actually in the hands of receivers, and the Comptroller thinks that most of those in the examiners' hands will reopen. The great majority of these banks are small institutions, 36 of them having a capital of but $50,000 each, although five of them were capitalized at a million dollars each and as many more at half a million. Of the failures 55 occurred in the far Western States, and 25 in the South. In 21 States and Territories no failures have occurred, in 7 but 1, in 8 but 2, in 7 again but 3. In only 8 of the States, therefore, have more than 3 failures taken place. In most of the great centres none of the banks has failed, only 1 in New York, 2 in Chicago, and 1 in Milwaukee. This statement ought to do much to restore confidence.

The breakdown of the Erie Railroad Company, and the transfer of its finances to receivers, adds another chapter to one of the most sensational among the histories of railroad wrecks. Among well-informed railroad men it cannot be said that this action was a surprise; for the Erie has for years been known as a heavy borrower of money, and its resources have been such as to render very dubious its outlook in a money panic. It has already passed three times through a receivership, and it escaped another such experience in the troubles of 1884 only by remarkably good luck. In times of easy credit a company even with such a record may carry readily enough a floating debt of five to seven millions. It may go so far as to pay interest on junior bonds not of a mandatory character, which the Erie did, with very doubtful wisdom, a few months since. But when, as is now the case, the market for time loans is shut even to borrowers with highest credit and best collateral, a corporation with credit so doubtful and needs so heavy is reasonably certain to go down. As a matter of fact, the company had reached a point where even its small current accounts could not be paid, for lack of money, and it became a question who should first apply for the protection of his interests through the courts. If the management had not petitioned for a receiver, holders of the company's notes or bills payable would surely have done so.

On the present management of the company the blame for such a situation does not rest. The Erie has a dark and shameful past. It was the chosen field for the robberies of Gould and Fisk, and the huge load of bonded indebtedness under which the railroad has in later days been staggering is the legacy of those conspirators. Even when the rascals who ruined the company twenty years ago had abandoned the wreck, an era of extravagance and mismanagement under other auspices ensued. The result has been a matter of public knowledge, that the Erie Road has continued as nearly in a state of chronic bankruptcy as a company can exist without actual default. The worst part of the incident, no doubt, lies in the inferences which people are likely, in the present era of fright, to draw in regard to other corporations. It is true, there are other heavy corporate borrowers in Wall Street. The stock of some of them is selling now almost at a receivership level. But it must be remembered that the Erie's past financiering was an exception. Others among the railroad borrowers have prudently placed their floating debt, in anticipation of the present troubles, on notes which will not mature until the present strain is past. Others, again, have used their foreign credit, and negotiated sterling loans whose renewal may be counted on. Others still are possessed of such outlook and resources as to assure them aid from wealthy capitalists personally concerned in their solvency. These are doubtful and troublous times, but they are times when the exercise of coolness and discrimination is the part of clear-headed men.

The reductions in wages now beginning to be reported are to be deplored upon general principles, but under the present circumstances they can hardly be avoided. It should be remembered that a steady and very long-continued rise in the value of wages has existed. There has been some rise in money wages at the same time, but the increase in their purchasing power has been within the last twenty years something remarkable. At the present day a mechanic of very ordinary skill can earn a barrel of flour by a day's work, and although bread is no longer so important a part of the diet of working people as formerly, it is a very satisfactory preventive of starvation. In most other articles of food there has not been so marked a decline in price as in the case of the cereals, but there have been few advances; and if the prices of the great staples of consumption were averaged, it would appear that the cost of living had materially diminished. The same conclusion is reached by examining the prices of clothing. The extremely low price of cotton has enabled the common people to provide themselves with cotton goods upon very advantageous terms, and the cheapness of wool has defeated even McKinley in his attempt to make woollen goods dear, however successful he may have been in impairing their quality. The abundance of capital and the ingenuity of our manufacturers have filled the homes of the poor with articles of convenience and comfort at marvellously small cost to the occupants, and in almost every respect, it may be said, they are getting far more for their wages than they were a generation ago.

The silver enthusiasts of Colorado are settling down to business at last. Failing to observe any indications of the mountain's coming to them, they are now proposing to go to the mountain. The Attorney-General of the State has given his opinion to the effect that the Legislature has power to authorize the deposit of silver bullion in the Treasury, and to issue certificates of deposit which shall be receivable for taxes. We will not venture to pronounce upon the constitutionality of this plan, but certainly no one in Colorado will dare to raise that question, and no one outside of that State will care to do so. It has always been the custom in many, if not all, of our States to accept labor upon the roads as payment of highway taxes, and there is no reason why the State should not commute taxes in silver or pig-iron or potatoes as well as labor. It is the practice in Turkey to collect the taxes "in kind," and the example of that Power is far more convincing to men affected with the silver craze than that of England, "an aristocratic government, administered by nobles, landlords, bankers, and capitalists in the interest of their own class, whose interest and object is to make money more valuable by the contraction of the currency to a gold basis." By all means let Colorado try this experiment. No time could be better, for any addition to the currency is welcome just now, and must be especially so in a community where the suspension of banks has been so extensive. If the Colorado people will show their faith by their works in this way, they will furnish an object-lesson to the rest of the world which will be far more effective than the frothy declamations of their demagogues.

The pitiful exhibition of the "friends of silver" in New York city last week might well be passed over in silence but for one thing. Disgraceful and humiliating as the affair was, it serves for ever to give the lie to the assertion, which has been so fre-

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quently made, that there are numbers of respectable business men in New York who favor free silver. After the collection of broken-down labor agitators and stranded promoters and professional cranks that was seen at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on July 26, in answer to the call for an uprising of the business men of this metropolis, the silver-men out West will no longer lay that flattering unction to their souls. Poor Messrs. Colgate and Higgins must have got wind of the unsavory crowd which their "call" was going to bring together, and discreetly absented themselves. They were represented by letters, it is true, which seemed only to add to the disorder of the meeting; but Mr. St. John was heard from by neither voice nor pen. This was a golden opportunity which we should not have thought he was the man to lose. The delegates appointed to the great Bimetallic Convention at Chicago ought to have taken along with them as their fitting credentials verbatim reports of the meeting that chose them. An instantaneous photograph, too, of the quarrelling mob, just before the alarmed proprietors turned off the light to get rid of it, would have conveyed to the Westerners an accurate idea of the kind of "friends of silver" which New York produces.

The appointment of Mr. Kilbreth as Collector of Customs for the port of New York is altogether satisfactory. Mr. Kilbreth has, we believe, enjoyed the distinction, during most of his nearly twenty years' career as police justice, of being the only lawyer upon that bench. He has had the further distinction of being a man of high character and a gentleman—traits which their most ardent supporters will scarcely claim for most of our police justices. By some miracle of political arrangement, and actuated by what must be regarded as genuine public spirit upon his part, this graduate of Harvard College and honorable practitioner was brought to occupy one of the least desirable of public offices, and one at the same time in which an upright and benevolent man can accomplish an immense amount of good. In these criminal courts justice is dispensed for the most part as summarily as by an Oriental cadi, and it has been a great piece of good fortune for the poor of this city to have even one such judge as Mr. Kilbreth at petty sessions. It was not to be expected that a magistrate of this character would be retained in power by Tammany Hall, and his retirement must have been a welcome release to himself. If we regard the Collectorship as a "plum," Mr. Kilbreth has certainly earned it by his public services; and if we regard it as an administrative office, we have no doubt that the practice he has acquired in the expeditious despatch of business in the police court will enable him to discharge his new duties successfully. We fear, it must be added, that a familiarity with all forms of fraud and cheating is one of the most important qualifications of a customs collector.

The idea has been sedulously cultivated by Republican organs that wholesale changes have been made in the consular service by the Cleveland Administration. The facts in the matter have been fully set forth in a statement furnished to the Boston *Herald* by Assistant Secretary of State Quincy, who has had special oversight of the appointments in this branch of the service. The total number of consuls-general, consuls, and commercial agents is 317, and among these 317 there have been changes in 117 cases. But of the 117 new appointments 18 were restorations to the service of former consular officers, all but one of whom had been displaced for political reasons by President Harrison. Some of these removals by the last Administration were utterly indefensible, and indeed were only made in its closing months when the "pressure" for them had become very strong. Mr. Quincy admits that changes have been made more rapidly under Cleveland than under Harrison, but he points out that at the close of the latter's Administration nearly all of the appointees of Cleveland's former Administration had been removed from the service, only twenty-four such appointees remaining on the 4th of March, 1893, and but fourteen of these holding positions having a salary of $1,500 or more. He also shows that a number of changes were demanded for the good of the service, by reason of the gross partisanship of Harrison's appointees, as in the cases of three consuls in Germany, who united in a letter to the editor of a newspaper in Chemnitz asking him to disclose the authorship of certain articles on the tariff question in his journal which displeased them.

Mr. Quincy says that the theory of the present Administration is that it is better for the consular service, as well as for other reasons, "that inevitable changes should be made with reasonable promptness, instead of after a long period of delay and uncertainty," and "that such changes should coincide as nearly as possible with changes in administrations rather than be made near the middle or end of an administration." He points out that this plan "gives the new appointees an assurance of a continuance in office for at least four years, if they perform their duties with efficiency; while the service of a political appointee of a former administration, who necessarily feels that he may be displaced at any moment, is not likely to be of much value to the Government." This theory is a sound one. No feature of our relations with foreign countries is more ridiculous than the custom of a retiring President's handing over a foreign mission or a consulate, between his own defeat and the inauguration of his successor, to a party or personal favorite, who accepts it with the understanding that the appointment is designed only to give him a trip abroad at the public expense. Mr. Harrison carried this absurd practice so far that in two cases last winter he removed good consuls in order to make vacancies for two Republican editors in Iowa who had just married and wanted Uncle Sam to pay the cost of their "bridal tours" to Europe!

Of making many Hawaiian treaties there is no end. First there was the one which Harrison drew and Cleveland withdrew. Then there was the one which, as we learned last week from Honolulu despatches, was prepared for the purpose of "covering objections which arose in the United States." This one "will not be forwarded." But a third one is forwarded, and if that doesn't suit, there will be no difficulty in drawing up others. The Provisional Government give out the main articles of their last treaty. It is their treaty because they have agreed to it. But it takes two to make a treaty, and the Constitution of the United States points out the treaty-making power of this country. Wisely or unwisely, that power is not vested in newspapers or in filibusters or in bounty-seekers, but in the President, "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." It looks, therefore, like a curious piece of inadvertence or audacity for the Provisional Government of Hawaii to publish in advance the terms of a treaty which they propose to submit to the American Executive. The best that can be said of such a course is that it is a case of gross diplomatic impropriety. We are not yet ready to accept the alternative view that it was meant as a studied affront to President Cleveland, and an endeavor to force his hand by newspaper clamor. The latest news shows that the Provisional Government is in a bad way, but we do not believe it is yet reduced to so desperate straits as such a purpose would imply. The articles of the treaty itself, as published, are not worth serious discussion.

The demoralization caused by the pension craze is illustrated by a recent incident in Boston. A business man, well-to-do in purse and vigorous in body, who already carried a considerable amount of life insurance, applied for $10,000 more. The medical examiner found nothing whatever to indicate any disease, past or present, and the investigation was almost concluded when the doctor asked the question, "Have you ever been a pensioner?" Thereupon the applicant stammered, and at last owned up that he was drawing a pension of $12 a month. Further inquiries drew from him "a tangled series of admissions that he had never really suffered any injury or illness entitling him to a pension, but he had made out some sort of a case of nervous shock or deterioration, at

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the instigation of a pension agent, and had taken his $12 a month from the United States Government, rich man though he was, on the principle that 'they all do it.'" The company very properly refused to grant him insurance, on the ground that a man who had perjured himself to get $12 a month from the Federal Treasury was quite capable of cheating an insurance company if he got the chance, and consequently was not a good risk. More than one life-insurance company now puts the query about pensions on the list of questions which applicants must answer, and this Boston man is not the only individual who will find that he has forfeited the chance of getting a large policy to which his physical condition entitles him, by fraudulently obtaining a petty pension to which he has no just claim.

It has occurred to us that the *Tribune* could perform a great public service by frankly publishing the results of its experience in illustrated journalism. It is in its power to make something like a scientific test of the question whether the business has any money in it. Let it faithfully report the approvals and the condemnations of its course in going over to the ranks of the illustrators; let it state whether the respectable subscribers it at first drove away to the *Times*, outnumber those it seduced from allegiance to the *World*, and then tell us how many were shuttle-cocked back to it when the *Times* began its judicious mixture of art and sensationalism; let it give the salaries it pays its talented artists, and state whether filling the space they occupy with composition would not be cheaper. This is really a most important question, and we appeal to the *Tribune* to settle it. Everybody admits that newspaper pictures are bad in art and misleading as to fact; but, of course, if they "pay," we must put up with them. If it could be shown, however, that they cost more than they come to, as there are those who suspect that they do, that would bring them within range of the great principle that a newspaper must not go into anything in which there is not "big money," and so we should get rid of them.

Mr. Astor's new *Pall Mall Magazine* lately offered prizes for the best drawings of an imaginary session of the Irish Parliament in Dublin. An instantaneous photograph of the scene in the House of Commons on Thursday night would have taken first prize. It was perhaps the most extensive free fight, with actual interchange of blows, ever witnessed in a legislative body. The French and Italian Deputies have given some disgraceful exhibitions in the past few years, but they scarce ever get beyond howling at each other and shaking innocuous fists at each other across a safe space, or resorting to still more innocuous pistols the next day to settle their personal differences. Passion had doubtless grown so tense on both sides that the break came spontaneously, and it is not in English blood, to say nothing of the Irish vital fluid, to stop with insulting language when recourse to nature's weapons is so much more telling a form of political argument, and when the area for the mêlée is so temptingly limited as that of the House of Commons. The shindy ought to have the effect of disposing of one great argument against an Irish Legislature—that it might be disorderly. But this consideration will not avail to modify the keen regret and sense of personal humiliation which Mr. Gladstone, and men to whom, as to him, the traditional dignity of the House of Commons is something precious, have felt at a scene of turbulence and violence unsurpassed in British parliamentary annals.

The mischief resulting from what may be called vicarious beneficence, or the distribution of alms at other people's expense, is complained of by Miss Octavia Hill, known as well in charitable circles in this country as in England. The London County Council has before it schemes for buildings for the working classes, and Miss Hill points out that the advocates of such measures must consider that the bulk of the working people of London either can or cannot be accommodated in such buildings. If only partial accommodation is to be provided, she maintains, the erection of such buildings, or even the possibility of their erection, will greatly paralyze individual effort. Much has been done by societies and individuals, during the last thirty years, to provide good houses for working-people on a self-supporting basis. They are ready to extend the work, but not if they must compete with buildings subsidized by State aid. This is no imaginary danger, for Miss Hill declares that she knows this result to have already followed in specified instances. On the other hand, if private enterprise—as to which she gives it as her deliberate opinion that it bids fair to meet the need—is to cease, and the London County Council is to monopolize the field, three great evils will be encountered. In the first place, the work will be done expensively—no such body as the Council being an economical builder—and the increased cost, instead of being met by rents, will be thrown upon the rates. In the second place, the Council, which ought to be the supervising body over tenements and landlords, will become the landlord itself and be pecuniarily interested in the houses to be supervised. In the third place, the electorate will be in large measure composed of tenants of the body to be elected. The consequences to be apprehended need not be dwelt upon; but at all events, Miss Hill declares, there is no deficiency of good lodging for the poor in London at the present time, although those who are unwilling to pay rent naturally find it hard to secure satisfactory and permanent abodes.

Another instance of unforeseen results from State intervention in the supposed behalf of the poor is brought out by an appeal from the London and North-western Railway Insurance Society to Parliament against the new Employers' Liability Bill. This measure is intended to improve the condition of workmen that are injured, by facilitating recovery from their employers; but the railway employees connected with this insurance society protest against any such improvement in their condition. They say that the railway, which now pays them a subvention of £16,000 per annum, will be obliged to withdraw this aid on account of its increased liability for damages, while the benefit to be expected by the men is too precarious a compensation for this certain loss. At present, these men say, they get their insurance pay in case of accident with the same regularity as they get their wages, no matter how or from what cause the accident arises. On the other hand, their personal experience and observation satisfy them that in cases of injury not five in a hundred of the injured would receive any compensation under the new bill. The protest of these men bears every evidence of good faith, and it may not improbably be the case that the apparent hardships of the law as it is have been so effectively done away with by the system of insurance that the overthrow of this system would do more harm than a change in the law would do good.

It was a maxim of the late M. Thiers (somewhat discredited before his death) that the world is at peace when France is satisfied. At the present moment it is hard to make out from the Paris newspapers whether France is satisfied or not. Siam has acceded to all of her demands, but it seems that France now requires guarantees. She has the country in her grasp—that is, she has all the guarantees that Siam could give, but this is not sufficient. The truth probably is that France is nettled because England had something to say about the blockade. What England did say is not publicly known, but that she should say anything is intolerable to the *Figaro*, the *Voltaire*, and the frequenters of the cafés, the light-headed people who rushed into Bismarck's trap in 1870, from which they were ransomed by five milliards and two provinces. The Government will probably come out of the Siamese difficulty with some plunder, and with what will pass at home for a triumph of French diplomacy; but according to present appearances it will have earned the ill will of Great Britain. This appears to be the opinion of Germany, which already speculates on this addition to her own capital in the next European turmoil.

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PARTISANSHIP AND SILVER.

WHEN Congress meets on August 7, the first idea the members should try to get into their heads is, that it is not a question of party politics which they are summoned in special session to settle. The second idea is, that no party capital is to be got out of the repeal of the Silver-Purchase Law. That repeal will be a triumph for neither party, but for the sound-money men in both and for the business men of the whole country. Its main party significance will be the confession which it will imply that both parties have grievously sinned and come short in financial matters. If any of the leaders on either side still think that it is good politics to trifle with the silver question, a brief review of the mistakes of either party in the last fifteen years ought to be enough to disabuse their minds for ever of that particular bit of nonsense.

It cannot be denied, and for our part we have never denied it, that the Democratic party since the war has been more disposed, as a party, to fall down and worship the idol of depreciated currency than has the Republican party. This great change from the historic Democratic position was naturally brought about by the party's long years of exclusion from power. It was inevitable that the discontented elements of society should flock to it, and there are no more thoroughly discontented people in the world than those who have more debts than they can pay. To cheat their creditors by paying them in cheap money is the first thought of many such people, and the thousands of them who joined the Democratic party in the South and West came more than once perilously near committing that party to depreciated currency and repudiation outright. It looked in 1874 and 1875 as if the party would surely make the fatal leap, and it was only the strong hand of Tilden, whom it had to take for its Presidential candidate, that held it back. After cheap silver was taken up in place of cheap greenbacks, the Democratic party was again more infected by the heresy than the Republican party, and again was saved from preaching it as an article of party faith only by the firmness and authority of Mr. Cleveland.

Unluckily for the Republican party, at the very time the Democrats were beginning to recover from the silver mania, the over-crafty politicians who had the making of Republican platforms put in a money plank which has proved a fruitful mother of woes to the party and the country. The Democratic platform of 1888 had not a line about silver in it. It was not necessary to have one with Mr. Cleveland as the candidate. But the Republicans, meeting in National Convention two weeks later than their opponents, pounced upon this omission and put in a loud bid for the silver vote by the following plank:

"The Republican party is in favor of the use of both gold and silver as money, and condemns the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver."

It was this unnecessary and fatal commitment of the Republican party that led straight up to the enactment of the Sherman Law, which, the whole country is now convinced, is our financial old man of the sea. Senator Sherman himself tacitly admitted this in his letter of July 8. He said that his party could enact no financial legislation without "the consent of the Republican Representatives from the silver-producing States." Why so? Reference to the debates in the Senate will show. The Republican Representatives from the silver-producing States alleged that the Republican platform had promised them substantially free coinage of silver; that they had been so assured on the spot at Chicago; that Colorado and other Western States could never have been carried for Harrison except on that understanding, and that they were there in Congress to call for the redemption of party pledges. Teller and Jones and Stewart and Wolcott were voluble and vociferous on this point. So were they in their sneers at the man in the White House, who, they intimated, could never have got there at all if he had not been thought friendly to silver, and who the West would take precious good care should never get there again if the party leaders proved unfaithful to their pledges. This explains what Senator Sherman meant when he said the party leaders had no "right" to throw the "responsibility" of a free coinage veto upon Harrison. This also explains the action of the Indiana Republicans, a few weeks after the Sherman Law was passed, in trying to make out Harrison a far better friend of silver than Cleveland. The party trick of 1888 led to the party trick of 1890, and the country is suffering to-day, and the Republican party is discredited, from the combined effects of the two.

We recall these facts of late political history for no partisan purpose. Both parties are tarred with the same stick. If the Democrats have sinned longer, the Republicans have sinned harder since they have been at it, and against clearer light. It is time to cry quits. It is time for both parties to renounce the silver devil and all his works, let bygones be bygones, and resolve to give the country a sound currency with such political unanimity that no party will ever dare again to try to make it unsound. Such a result will be a triumph for neither party. It will simply be a triumph of common sense, of business principles, and of scientific finance.

THE PANIC OF 1873.

WHAT the present panic may yet have in store for us, no one is wise enough to predict, but it can be safely affirmed that it has not, up to the present time, been nearly as disastrous as the panic of 1873. That panic had been preceded by a rage of speculation which began soon after the close of the war in 1865. This speculation took its rise in premature and excessive railway-building. During the war the building of new railways came almost to a standstill. The capital and labor of the nation for four years were applied almost exclusively to military and naval operations. When the armies were disbanded and the nation's floating debt funded, the field of enterprise in the West was entered upon with a feeling of high exuberance and enthusiasm. The first Pacific railway was opened for business in 1869. Great numbers of the enterprising and the capitalist classes were enabled, by this avenue, to see something of the vast resources west of the Missouri River. The glimpses thus obtained were very attractive, and the policy which then prevailed at Washington of giving away the public lands to people who would agree to build railways through them, stimulated in the highest degree this speculative zest.

At the beginning of 1869 there were 170,208,000 acres of land available as the basis for railroad bond issues. This was, for the most part, good agricultural land. The world had never seen such a chance to make money. Capitalists rushed in from Europe as well as from America to get some of the profits of this dazzling Golconda. Railway-building took an unexampled start. From 1859 to 1869 the annual increment of new mileage was under 2,000 miles per year. In 1869 it rose to 4,953 miles, in 1870 to 5,690 miles, and in 1871 to 7,670 miles. In 1872 there was a slight decrease from the mileage of the previous year, there being 6,167 miles of new railway completed. Here were nearly 25,000 miles of new railway constructed in four years' time. It was a necessary adjunct to this feat that there should be a great speculation in iron and also in lands and town lots. Mills and furnaces multiplied on every hand, and as these could not possibly supply the demand for rails, cars, and locomotives, there was an enormous importation also. The speculation so rampant in iron and in town lots extended of course to other things, so that the period (1869 to 1873) was marked by one of the most remarkable "booms" that this or any country ever saw.

The appearance of abounding prosperity which distinguished this period was darkened on the 17th of September, 1873, by the failure of the New York and Oswego Midland Railway. There was a tumble in stocks, and this became a panic on the following day, when the banking-house of Jay Cooke & Co. failed. The decline in the stock market, when this event became known, ranged from 1 to 10 per cent. On the next day nineteen other banking and brokerage houses in New York and eight in Philadelphia failed. On the next day (the 20th) the Union Trust Co. closed its doors with liabilities of $6,000,000. This event took away what little reason was left in the Street. Western Union Telegraph shares fell thirty-five points and New York Central eleven points, although

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the latter had the powerful support of Commodore Vanderbilt. The Bank of the Commonwealth and the National Trust Co. closed their doors, the Canada Southern Railroad failed, and the Stock Exchange closed its doors and did not reopen them for ten days.

At this juncture an appeal was made to the Treasury for assistance, and Secretary Boutwell, after consultation with President Grant, decided to pay out a large sum in greenbacks that had been retired under a previous law of Congress, but not cancelled. It was decided to consider this a reserve and to use it in the purchase of Government bonds. Twenty-four millions was thus disbursed with great rapidity, but without producing any good effect. The bonds so bought belonged mostly to savings banks, and these banks locked up the greenbacks which they received, and held them in anticipation of a run on themselves, which did not take place. Very little, if any, of this money found its way into commercial circles.

On the 23d there was a general bank suspension throughout the country, except at Chicago. In the latter city five banks failed. In New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, and St. Louis the clearing-houses adopted the pooling plan of loan certificates, and the example was followed by all cities which had clearing-houses, and with very good effect, because it allayed public excitement and prevented runs which otherwise would have taken place everywhere, as in the panic of 1857. The banks refused to pay currency, except on small checks or in cases where it was needed to pay wages. All other checks were certified as "good through the Clearing-house." It was one of the phenomena of this panic that currency bore a premium over certified bank checks. On the 26th of September it was from 3 to 5 per cent. This was the highest rate of premium. The total amount of Clearing-house certificates in New York at any one time was $26,565,000. On October 2 the premium on currency over certified checks fell to 1 per cent., then to ½, then to ¼, then to ⅛, and finally, on the 31st of the same month, it disappeared altogether. The last Clearing-house certificates were redeemed on the 1st of November, at which time complete resumption on the part of the banks took place.

The panic proper ended at this point, but the consequences of it, in commercial circles, lasted till 1879. The mercantile failures in the three years following the panic reached $650,000,000, and the railway defaults $563,000,000; and $226,000,000 of such defaults had occurred before the September panic began.

THE EFFECT OF HOARDING MONEY.

THE concerted action taken by the managers of the savings banks of this State, in requiring notice before paying depositors, has drawn forth some comments which indicate a misapprehension of the situation. That situation is so unusual as to justify a brief review of the course of our financial disorder. It began, beyond all question, in the apprehension felt by long-headed men both here and abroad, after the passage of the Silver Bill of 1890, that the Government would be forced to stop paying gold for its notes, which would bring the country with a terrible crash down to a silver basis. This apprehension was aggravated by the policy of dispelling the surplus by pension acts and other extravagant legislation—a policy which certainly succeeded in its immediate object, but which of course tended to impair the solvency of the Treasury. A disgraceful and disastrous error in the Treasury statistics—a blunder the importance of which has apparently been overlooked in these exciting days—by which our importations were made to appear to be at the rate of $40,000,000 a year in excess of what they really were, coupled with the large exportation of gold, operated to intensify the apprehension. The bold and clear utterances of President Cleveland at last removed its first cause. The business world was assured that gold would be paid by the United States Treasury for all its notes if demanded. It is true that a great deal was staked upon the continuance of a single life, but it may be said that after the declarations of the President the "silver scare" ceased to be reasonable. The Silver Act would remain an evil, but it was certain that the Administration would and could maintain gold payments.

In our judgment the impression was general, after the policy of the Treasury was understood, that the danger of financial disaster was averted. It seems now that several elements were not properly estimated in forming this conclusion. The principal one was the fact that frightened people disregard rational considerations. The cause of their alarm may be removed, but their nerves continue to quiver. That wonderful system of mutual trust by which almost all the enormous business of modern times is carried on—a system under which, practically, all payments are made in promises to pay, which are offset but never actually paid—when once thrown out of gear cannot be quickly repaired. Had there been no untoward event and no one interested in stimulating apprehension, confidence might gradually have returned. But the collapse of the vast schemes of the managers of the Reading Railroad, followed by the startling failure of the National Cordage Company, with their disgraceful revelations of unprincipled business methods, utterly demoralized the stock market and aroused apprehension to an even greater extent than before. And it is clear that an aggressive "bear" campaign had been determined upon by certain speculators who were consequently interested in spreading terror as widely as possible. The fall in prices, it must be remembered, had greatly enriched these speculators. They had sold in expectation of a fall, and their profits had been enormous. These profits gave them a vastly increased power to sell, while the general public had not only a diminished ability to buy, but also a greatly diminished disposition. Many people had to sell stocks to pay their debts, and few wanted to buy when they dreaded still lower prices.

At such times as these the custodians of other people's money are unfortunately compelled to adopt a policy that aggravates the disorder. Our whole system of deposit-banking is based upon the assumption that depositors will not all want their money at once. The profit of banking depends upon the truth of this assumption, for this profit is made out of the interest obtained by loaning deposits. Of course, this assumption is generally true; but it is not always true, and the fear of its proving untrue is always before the prudent banker. In times of financial stringency, therefore, when many people would like to borrow more money, the banks are obliged to lend less. They do not know when they may have to meet a sudden demand from their depositors, and they have therefore to resist the demands of their borrowers. They can check borrowing to some extent by raising the rate of discount; people who were going into new operations will give them up when they find that their interest account will be too heavy. But the people who are already in debt must have money or fail, and if they fail, their creditors must have money or fail. Moreover, the diminution of credits, which do the work of money in exchanging goods, throws more work upon the actual money. Just when the banks are most anxious to increase their supplies of cash, the business of the country actually requires more cash. The weak and remote banks succumb to the strain, and, as checks drawn upon them are no longer of use, the country dealers are compelled to use cash. The reserves kept by the out-of-town banks with the city banks are drawn upon, and there is everywhere a great and a perfectly legitimate demand for cash.

Unfortunately there springs up a demand which, to a certain extent, may be properly called illegitimate. This is the demand for the purpose of private hoarding. Many people reason: "There is no telling when my bank may suspend payment, and it would be a terrible thing to have no money to pay the butcher and the grocer. I will therefore draw my money out of the bank while I can get it, and put it into my safe-deposit box, where it is under my own control. Then I am sure not to starve, whatever happens to the country." It is hard to blame people for doing this, and yet if they had a little more courage and public spirit they perhaps would not do so. A "state of barter" is not what we are used to, but if all the money in the country were to vanish, the necessary exchanges of goods would

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somehow be made. Fortunately, the number of people who are either sanguine or public-spirited is sufficient to overcome to a large extent the timid and selfish element, but it is unquestionably an element that has to be reckoned with. It is highly probable that the multiplication of safe-deposit companies has increased the danger. In 1873 there were perhaps not a half-dozen such companies in the country, and many people had no safe place to keep money if they took it from the banks. Now there are hundreds of them, and the temptation to hoard is increased.

The savings banks are empowered by law to resist the craze for hoarding. They can insist upon thirty days' or sixty days' notice, and thereby protect themselves for a while. It may seem harsh to refuse depositors their money, but, in the first place, if the depositors all want it, they must be refused, for it is not in possession of the bank; and in the second place, if any depositor is in real need of his money, the officers of the bank will not allow him to suffer. They are, therefore, in the position of protecting people against themselves, and are trustees for the public safety. If the panic were to last indefinitely, of course the savings banks would have to yield. They are liable for enormous sums payable in legal tender, and their resources, if forced upon the market at such a time, would not produce in cash anything like the amount of their liabilities. But panics do not last indefinitely. Everybody may go crazy for a while, but before two months have passed sanity returns.

The action of the savings banks is therefore calculated to check hoarding by a very large class of people. These people may be deterred from depositing as freely as usual, but they cannot bring ruin upon the banks by sudden and frantic "runs." But hoarding by depositors in ordinary banks and trust companies is solely within their own control. Fortunately these depositors are principally men of business, not easily frightened, and anxious, both from generous and from selfish motives, that there shall be no general ruin. Every one knows that if he were to insist upon converting his deposits into cash, he could do so only if others did not, and to do so merely to hoard the cash would be looked upon by most men as a mean and cowardly act. We are all citizens of the same country, all "in the same boat"; and if we are going to be wrecked, let us not add shame to disaster by fighting over the life-preservers. Our financial system is an institution just as worthy of patriotic sacrifice as any other, and its salvation may depend upon the restraint of the hoarding propensity. The wise and honorable course is for every one to draw out no more cash than will suffice for immediate needs, and, if he is concerned about the future, to buy freely of everything that he is certain to require. It is only in this way that the present stringency will be relieved and the wheels of industry again be put in motion.

JOURNALISM IN NEW YORK.

WE have waited with considerable impatience, though in vain up to the present, for some of the "great newspapers" of the city, as they never tire of calling themselves, to tell us what they think of the "inside view" of their business given in the remarkable articles in the August *Forum*. These articles do not easily lend themselves to illustration by portraits or maps, and there is certainly nothing off-color about them, yet even without those prime attractions we should have thought their importance merited notice. For it cannot be denied that they contain an amount of truth which it would be hard to find put so forcibly anywhere else in the same space.

It has long been our contention that metropolitan journalism has tended more and more to put itself upon a mercenary basis, pure and simple. For believing and saying this, and for pointing out the great difference between the papers of thirty and forty years ago, which were vehicles of opinion, and those of to-day, which are merely pieces of property, we have been accused of ill-natured jealousy and many other unpleasant qualities. In the current number of *Scribner's Magazine*, Mr. Julian Ralph talks of the "eccentricity" of the *Evening Post* in saying that the modern newspaper has become exclusively a business enterprise. Now, no one will suspect Mr. J. W. Keller of the *Recorder* of being guilty of any eccentricity, or of having his vision blurred by prejudice or fantastic ideals, and it is he who declares in the *Forum*, that "the fundamental principle of metropolitan journalism to-day is to buy white paper at three cents a pound and sell it at ten cents a pound." He adds with equal truth: "In some quarters it does not matter how much the virgin whiteness of the paper is defiled, so long as the defilement sells the paper." Such a confession of faith from such a source is beyond dismissal as a "snarl," or as the attempt of a man, ashamed of his own profession, to vilify it, and for this reason we are thankful to Mr. Keller for having made it. His entire article, in fact, contains a realistic account of actual journalism in New York, which may be denounced as repulsive, but must be admitted to be truthful.

With like remorseless truth, and with even greater effect, does Mr. Speed in his analysis, by facts and figures, of the change which has come over New York journalism in the past twelve years, show whither the mercenary spirit is leading it. It has abdicated the function of a teacher or leader, and, having hit upon the principle of "giving the public what it wants," it has made itself more and more a purveyor of gossip and scandal. No other conclusion is possible from Mr. Speed's statistical exhibit, which shows how editorial and literary and scientific matter has declined, and how gossip and scandal have increased. It may or may not be meant as an "arraignment" of the papers to which Mr. Speed has applied his scalpel, but it is a simple fact which he states: "The gossip this year usurps the place of the literary matter printed in 1881, and articles about crimes and criminals take the places formerly occupied by religious and scientific matter."

He makes another important point, which we have independent evidence to believe to be well taken. This is, that while New York papers have degenerated, Western papers, particularly Chicago papers, have improved. He states it as a fact within his own knowledge that Chicago editors often consider as unfit for publication lurid stories of crimes and scandals telegraphed them from New York from the columns of some great metropolitan daily. Our own experience corroborates to a certain extent what Mr. Speed says when he refers to "those mistaken persons in the East who have believed, without knowing exactly why, that everything in Chicago was more vulgar and more coarse than anywhere else." He adds:

> "It must not be understood that the claim is here made that the Chicago papers are models of propriety and good taste. In my opinion, they are nothing of the kind. They are not even so good as the New York papers of twelve years ago; but they are very much nicer and cleaner than the Chicago papers of that time or than the New York papers of to-day. So, while there has been a distinct deterioration and decadence in the New York newspaper press in the last dozen years, the improvement in Chicago has been steady and noteworthy, and this notwithstanding the introduction and general adoption there of the illustrations that do not illustrate."

This throws needed light upon Mr. Keller's elegant allusion to the "mind" we have seen in the past decade "loom up from the Western horizon and revolutionize metropolitan journalism." That "mind," in other words, brought to New York a vulgar standard which was then current and popular in the West, but which the West has since grown ashamed of and tried to improve. While the standard was thus being repudiated in the place of its origin, it was being embraced in New York as the final and glorious flower of newspaper development, and instead of being improved has been steadily degraded and made worse than its original model. It is as if New York society had gone mad over the manners and costume of a cow-boy, who came to it fresh from the prairies, and had taken to wearing its own trousers in its boots and to letting its hair grow long and greasy, and to spitting tobacco juice in the parlor and riding bronchos down Fifth Avenue, and then had denied that it was acting like a cow-boy, and professed to be exemplifying the ripest fruits of civilization. Meanwhile, the people on the plains, where the captivating cow-boy came from, have really made some advance in civilization, have thrown away their cow-hide boots and cut their hair and washed up in part, leaving it more

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and more to be the fact that the commercial and literary capital of the country should take the lead in that exploitation of crime and indecency, and those exhibitions of bad taste and worse manners, which are miscalled journalism.

FRUITS OF FRENCH REALISM.

THE weightiest and most instructive comment we have seen on the recent disorders in Paris, especially upon the outbreak of the students from which the more serious troubles grew, is from the pen of M. Ernest Lavisse. His name is a sufficient guarantee of a thoroughly frank and serious and intelligent discussion of the question which he sets himself to answer, and which is, "Is it just that the young men of the schools should get a bad reputation from the troubles which have just ended, and are older men right in concluding that the youth of the present day are rotten?"

He begins by an impartial setting forth of the facts. M. Bérenger, one of the most honorable and respectable men living, as M. Lavisse calls him, had set on foot a league for the suppression of vice, and was moving, in particular, against the public display of indecent pictures and books. This seemed vastly amusing to certain spirits in the Latin Quarter, and it was as a sort of huge caricature of this excellent reformer that the famous ball was organized where such indecencies were planned and perpetrated that the police had to interfere. Then came the death of Nuger and the intense exasperation of the students against the police, against whom they had borne a grudge ever since the needless severities inflicted upon their class at the time of the Boulanger riots in Paris. Thus the indecent ball, which was the cause of all, was immediately and totally forgotten in the disturbances which came to such head as to threaten the very existence of the Ministry.

Taking up the question of the causes which have made such shameless exhibitions and approval of immorality possible by those in the morning of their days, M. Lavisse asserts that the young men of modern France are in danger of being made blind to all moral distinctions by "the immorality in literature." What is the cause, he asks men of fifty, of the great difference, in point of delicacy, not to say decency, in sexual matters, between the young men of the present generation and their fathers? For answer, he asks them to compare the literature of their youth with that of to-day. They could remember when 'Madame Bovary' was in court on the charge of indecency, but 'Le Docteur Pascal' goes unchallenged now. They would recall the sensation which the mild indecencies of the *Vie Parisienne* of their youth excited; the unspeakable performances of that journal at the present day are only laughed at. They could remember the sedateness of the news-stands and book-stalls thirty years ago; what kind of engravings and what sort of books do they see displayed to-day? They could recall the dubious stories which they used to read in secret; how much worse were the novels now lying openly on the desks of men and on the tables of women!

"Beyond all question," says M. Lavisse, in words which ought to be printed in capitals and posted in every place where pornographic books and papers are put on sale—"beyond all question, this literature makes its victims. It works havoc among the young, who are wearied with the monotony of school life, and who rush out, the moment they are free, in pursuit of those perilous enjoyments which thrust themselves forward at every street-corner, in every wine-room, under the eye of an indifferent police. It does worse: it destroys all freshness of feeling, it corrupts love at its very awakening, and makes a curse of it. It makes woman a vile thing. It is criminally ignoble." It needed not a man to rise from the dead to tell us this, but it is something to have one of M. Lavisse's standing in his own country and out of it avow the truth in this fashion. The fact must be as he states it. Human nature being what it is, psychology and physiology being what they are, the "grossness of the naturalists and the subtleties of the pornographists," to use the words of M. Lavisse, cannot have any other result. The inherited wisdom and experience of all nations must be at fault if the habitual contact of young natures with such a literature does not produce in them something of its own putridity.

But how far has this process of corruption gone in France? Is it, as M. Lavisse asks, the whole body of youth, all of the more than 10,000 students in Paris, who are responsible for the shameless worship of what Matthew Arnold called "the great goddess Lubricity"? No, he answers, and on this point his testimony is doubtless as authoritative as on the other. It is only "the phenomenon of the scum" that was seen in Paris, he assures us.

> "I owe my testimony of regard to a great many young men whom I know, not vaguely, but thoroughly, from seeing their manner of life. For certain ones, for whom life is hard, without, however, impairing their energy, it is not simply regard that I profess; it is respect. I could tell a great many stories which would go far to console worthy people who are now troubled by the calumnies which are spread abroad about young men. . . . No, it is not true. I know of admirable devotion to family duties. I know of wills bent on doing right, of passionate desires to be useful, to do some good in the world, and of the noblest intellectual eagerness."

Here again our instinctive verdict is that M. Lavisse must be right. If the dissolute creatures who inaugurated the ball of the Quat'z' Arts fairly represented the educated young men of France, it would be time not merely to despair of her, but to abandon her, to draw off from her as we would from any other mass of rottenness that might burst into spontaneous combustion at any moment. That the country exists and progresses, that it enjoys as much stability as it has, and pursues art and science with the energy and success we all know of, is a proof that it is indeed a "phenomenon of the scum" which we have been witnessing. Widespread as are the sources of corruption in France, and lamentable as have been their processes and results, we are glad to believe with M. Lavisse that the fibre of the nation has not yet been seriously impaired. Admitting the worst, he says, "let us not rush to the conclusion that the mass of young men are degenerate. If I knew the age of the race, I could tell exactly when that idea was first put into circulation; but, being obliged to content myself with a vague date, I will say that it was fifty years after the appearance of the first man."

THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—I.

FINE ARTS: FRENCH AND AMERICAN SCULPTURE.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

AT the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876, the United States section in the Art Building contained a heterogeneous collection of pictures, a few with good technical qualities, a good many more with interesting subjects but mediocre execution, and a great number that were simply too bad to be judged at all by the standard set by some of the other nations. Our show looked strangely provincial and amateurish beside the creditable exhibitions made by France, Great Britain, and other countries. At the Paris Universal Exposition in 1878, the American section in the fine-arts galleries consisted of one room in which was displayed a small collection of works comprising pictures by a comparatively small number of the artists at home, and a fairly representative exhibition of the work of American artists residing in Europe at that time. But this little collection, although it contained some very good work, was an unimportant, almost insignificant, part of the great art show in the Champ de Mars that year. American visitors hunted it up and looked at it, the jury of awards visited it and distributed a few medals and honorable mentions to the most prominent exhibitors, and, when the Exhibition was over, no impression had been made on the art world by the efforts of the Americans.

Eleven years afterwards, again at the Champ de Mars, when the American artists abroad had increased ten-fold in number, and almost all those who had been in Paris in 1878 had returned and settled in the United States together with a host of others who had completed their studies in the Paris and other schools in the decade between the two expositions, the United States section was one of the most interesting of all those in the vast galleries. It occupied three large rooms and overflowed in the corridors. One room contained the pictures by the artists in New York and other American cities; the other two were filled with the works of those abroad, principally in and about Paris. The collection attracted great attention; the remarkable progress shown by the American school was widely commented upon, and even not over-generous critics conceded that it was second only to the exhibition made by the French themselves in technical achievement and manifestation of artistic purpose. In so far as comparisons of one exhibition with another are valuable, it will be useful only to compare our standing in the Paris Exposition

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of 1889 with what it is at the World's Fair at Chicago. Further, as France leads the world in the fine arts, the most interesting comparison will be that of the French and the Americans.

In 1889 France, with her exhibition of the work of the decade from 1878 and the splendid Retrospective Exhibition, including many of the finest works her artists had produced in the hundred years from 1789, was so far in the lead that the United States, while second, was a long way behind. The French collection, too, most complete in all the branches of the fine arts, was by far the largest of any at the Champ de Mars. At Paris there were 5,789 works in the French section and only 572 in that of the United States. At Chicago the United States has 2,863 and France 1,198. Each nation, naturally, has made its best and most complete exhibition on its own ground. At Paris Great Britain had 552 works in all departments, Belgium 450, Italy 327, Holland 288, Denmark 248, Sweden 228, Russia 205, Spain 179, Switzerland 168, Austria 159, Norway 143, and Germany (not an official exhibition) 101. At Chicago (quoting the official catalogue issued by the World's Fair authorities), Great Britain has 1,130 works, double the number at Paris; Belgium 287, Italy 503, Holland 343, Denmark 178, Sweden 188, Russia 135, Spain 185, Austria 147, Norway 154, and Germany 849. The totals for the countries so far mentioned foot up about 1,000 more at Paris than at Chicago; but when other foreign sections are included, additions made for sub-lettering of numbers in the Chicago catalogue and the 125 numbers in the "Loan Collection of Foreign Masterpieces owned in the United States" (mostly works by French artists) taken into the account, the extent of the two exhibitions is found to be about the same. While there is nothing at Chicago to rival the Retrospective Exhibition at the Champ de Mars, and the French collection of the works of living artists is inferior in quality and much less representative than its parallel at Paris, the Chicago exhibition is probably more interesting to Americans by reason of the great excellence of the showing made by our own country. The exhibition at Chicago is not as fine as the one at Paris simply because the French exhibition is so much less complete. It is about two-thirds as good, leaving the Retrospective Exhibition out of the question. The pictures shown at Paris by such men as Dagnan-Bouveret, Cazin, Delaunay, Meissonier, Bonnat, Jules Breton, Aimé Morot, Detaille, Gervex, Carolus-Duran, Guillemet, Harpignies, Maignan, Puvis de Chavannes, and Vollon gave the French section there a character that is lacking at Chicago. In the Retrospective Exhibition, for such pictures as Corot's "Biblis," Millet's "Gleaners," and the works of Baudry, Bastien-Lepage, Bonvin, Daubigny, Troyon, Rousseau, Manet, Courbet, Fromentin, and Diaz there is no equivalent at Chicago. The Loan Collection here, though somewhat mixed, is a good and interesting one, but in no sense does it rival the famous "Retrospective" of 1889. And this disparity is not confined to the pictures. It is the same with sculpture. It is unnecessary, however, to proceed further with the comparison. Let us now consider the Chicago exhibition on its own merits.

I shall review the American and French sections first because of the preponderating importance of the French school in modern art and its great influence for good on our own artists, and because the American exhibition in general interest and, to a considerable extent, in technical achievement is the best of all those at Chicago. Before speaking of the pictures, however, it will be proper to consider the sculpture. In this the French are so far in the lead that no comparisons are possible. The United States exhibition is on the whole excellent. Some pretty bad work has been admitted by some of the juries that made the selections in the various art centres abroad and at home, but the collection shows an unexpectedly high average; and a number of fine works by well-known men that have been exhibited in New York and elsewhere at different times, now brought together, make a creditable, almost an imposing show. It is next in importance and general excellence to the French. The other nations, it may be noted here, present scarcely anything of value.

Most of the French sculpture is placed in the South Court and the Central Rotunda of the Fine Arts Building, with some selected pieces in the smaller rotunda in the East Pavilion, where the French pictures are hung. The splendid exhibition of casts of French sculpture from the eleventh to the nineteenth century, consisting of decorative forms in the shape of façades of cathedrals and châteaux and of single figures and groups, is placed in the East Court. It forms one of the best educational features at the World's Fair apart from its beauty as an exhibit, and the most generous praise is due to the French Government for sending it. Occupying a prominent place in the South Court is a group of heroic size by Bartholdi, representing "Washington and Lafayette," which, like some other patriotic figures in the American section, might well have been left out of the Exhibition, to its improvement in an artistic point of view. Another sculptor, Choppin, has sent a figure whose subject is appropriate to the occasion, a "Volunteer of 1776," but this is spirited and very good. It shows an American youth, gun in hand, and is excellent in action and vigorously modelled. It would be a first-rate thing to buy and set up in some park—a destiny which, it may be hoped, is not in store for the "Washington and Lafayette." Some of the best French sculptors are not represented at Chicago, but many of the best are, and among the finest things are the four figures by Paul Dubois for the tomb of Gen. Lamoricière. They are beautiful works from the hand of one of the greatest sculptors of our time, and only one thing is to be regretted about their exhibition here, that they cannot be seen in the architectural setting of the monument, where their fitness for their purpose could be more justly appreciated. But, detached as they are, on separate pedestals, they are nevertheless admirable in their fine dignity of pose and masterly modelling. Mercié, with his imposing group "Quand Même," symbolical figures of Alsace and a French soldier, and his lithe and graceful figure of "David the Victor"; St. Marceaux, with the mysteriously beautiful "Spirit Guarding the Secret of the Tomb"; Falguière, with "Republican France," an allegorical group, and "Diana Shooting"; Carlès, with his admirable recumbent figure of Abel; Idrac, with a lovely supple figure of Salammbô; Gaudez, with a charming conception, "The Nymph Echo"; and Michel, with the well-composed group, "The Blind Man and the Paralytic," are some of the sculptors whose names are fairly well known on this side of the Atlantic.

Then there is Frémiet, whose "Man of the Stone Age," a strange-looking creature dancing, and "Wounded Dog," are admirable from every point of view, and who also exhibits one of the finest things in the galleries, an equestrian figure of Velasquez. By some oversight or delay it has not been catalogued, but the visitor cannot miss seeing it. Horse and rider, elevated on a pedestal, occupy a commanding position in the rotunda, and the group is one of the first things to catch the eye by reason of its splendid style and imposing aspect. This great sculptor, who modelled the celebrated "Jeanne d'Arc" that stands in the Place des Pyramides in Paris, is in this work at his very best, and one can think only of the great Florentine equestrian portraits of the Renaissance in searching for its equal. From Rodin, about whose work there has been so much discussion in the past six or seven years, there is one of his figures for the eccentric group, "The Bourgeois of Calais," uncouth, realistic in the sense of portraying an ordinary type of man in tattered garments of the Middle Ages, vigorously modelled, but absolutely without *allure*, and a "Portrait of a Man." Some other work of his that was late in arriving, I was told, is shortly to be placed in the galleries. By Hannaux, who must be one of the men who have made a Paris success recently, there is a charming figure modelled with great subtlety and exceedingly graceful in line, "Phryne"; and by Barrias, who is a veteran, there is the celebrated group called "The First Burial," Adam and Eve carrying the dead body of Abel in their arms. Cain sends three strong animal subjects, of which the "Lion Strangling a Crocodile" is the most notable; and the "Danish Hound" by Lami is only less good than the "Wounded Dog" by Frémiet beside which it is placed.

Lombard's delightful figure of Diana, Verlet's "Grief of Orpheus," Chapu's "Jeanne d'Arc," Ringel d'Illzach's very modern-looking and realistic "Parisienne," and Puech's beautiful conception, "The Star," are other notable works, and in the middle of the round room in the American section stands Gérôme's "Galatea and Pygmalion," which was one of the great successes of the Champs-Élysées Salon last year. It is admirably composed, charming in sentiment, and firmly and delicately modelled. The only criticism to make on it in a technical sense is that it is a trifle rigid in line. This work is not catalogued, and its presence in the American section may be taken as a delicate compliment to the artists of the United States, for many of whom Gérôme has been instructor and counsellor.

It is unfortunate for the credit of the American exhibition of sculpture that such miserable stuff as "The Dreaming Iolanthe," "Lady Godiva," "Lady Godiva Returning," and "Vanderbilt Group," by Caroline S. Brooks, such cheap and vulgar work as "Love Knows no Caste," by Frederick E. Triebel of Florence, and such mediocrities, or worse, as John Rogers's Lincoln, "The Struggle for Work," by J. Gelert, and Thomas Ball's "Colossal Statue of Washington" were admitted; and neither the big "Buffalo Hunt," by H. K. Bush-Brown, nor the "Plaster Replica of Statue of Shakspere for Lincoln Park, Chicago," by William Ordway Partridge, will add to the reputations of the artists. Mr. Partridge, however, exhibits a number of other works, among them the excellent figure of Alexander Hamilton for the Hamilton Club of Brooklyn.

Augustus St. Gaudens and J. Q. A. Ward, the two best-known American sculptors, have no works in the exhibition, and there is nothing by Frederick MacMonnies, but the latter's great fountain in the Court of Honor in front of the Administration Building is more than enough to represent him worthily. There are

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148 numbers in the sculpture group of the United States section, and, as has been said before, it is unexpectedly good in quality. Mr. French's fine "Death and the Sculptor," Mr. Adams's "Portrait Bust of a Lady" and "Primavera," Mr. Bartlett's "The Ghost Dance," "Bohemian and Bears," and "Bust of Mrs. B.," Mr. Donoghue's "Young Sophocles," Mr. Martiny's "Portrait Bust of a Child," and Mr. Warner's bust portraits and medallions, most of them familiar from having been seen in New York exhibitions, set the standard in the American galleries; and in various works by Douglas Tilden (who shows a group called "An Indian Bear Hunt," and a spirited figure, "A Baseball Player," that are very good, and a "Tired Boxer" that is less successful), J. S. Hartley, Leonard W. Volk, F. Wellington Ruckstuhl, Thomas Shields Clarke, H. Le Grand Cannon, Theo Alice Ruggles, and Robert P. Bringhurst this high standard is more or less nearly approached. A fine work, new to us if I am not mistaken, is the bronze equestrian figure, "Signal of Peace," by C. E. Dallin, that is one of the best things shown by the Americans; and Mr. Elwell sends his bronze group of "Charles Dickens and Little Nell" which was first exhibited a year or two ago in London. The figure of the little girl is especially good in this, but Mr. Elwell's other exhibit, which he calls "Intellect Dominating Brute Force, or Diana and the Lion," a group in marble, is better than anything he has yet produced. The nude figure of Diana is modelled with firmness and with a delicate and nervous touch, a lack of character in the head being almost its only shortcoming; and the group is dignified and graceful in composition. Mr. Kemeys's studies of animals, of which there are twelve, complete the list of what is best in the exhibition. It must be most gratifying to Americans to find our sculptors making such an excellent showing at Chicago. The works just enumerated, taken in connection with the decorative groups and figures on the buildings and in the grounds, of which I shall speak further on, prove that we have made as great though not as general progress in this as in painting. An exhibition of sculpture worthy of the name, such as is made by France and the United States at the World's Fair, has not been seen in our country before, and it is to be hoped that visitors will not overlook its importance.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

THE ITALIAN FINANCIAL CRISIS.

ROME, July 13, 1893.

THE *Nation* which comes to-day has an article on the "Happy-Go-Lucky Policy," in which occurs a passage that curiously illustrates the Italian proverb, "Tutto il mondo è paese," for it exactly fits the position here, only exchanging silver for paper:

"For what is the problem to be solved? Why, the most serious that can be set before a great commercial nation, except the means of repelling a foreign invasion. It is neither more nor less than the provision of a standard of value. We are to-day to all intents and purposes without one. That is to say, we have actually no measure by which a citizen can ascertain with accuracy what the debts due him, or the securities he holds, or the contracts he has made, will be worth in any other commodities one month or five years hence."

Italy is exactly in the position that America would be in if the unlimited silver standard were adopted, with this exception, that *you* would know that you were to be paid in silver which would be worth about 50 per cent. of the now accepted amount of the debt, etc., etc., while *we* should know that the value of our paper money would probably be about 80 per cent. of the same. Our uncertainty would probably be better than your certainty, the depreciation in both cases being in consequence of an excess of the circulating medium. But what was the most curious feature of our case was that, rather more than a year ago, with $20,000,000 more or less of silver money in the country, it was impossible to force it into circulation. No one would willingly accept it, preferring the small notes of the Government ($1 and $2), and if by chance a trader had to offer it in change, he did it with an apology, saying, "I have no notes." If Italy had not had the sentimental malady which came out in the so-called Latin Union (as if French, Spanish, Belgians, or Swiss were any more *Latin* than are the Germans or English), her silver would have stayed in the country, and still no one would have wanted it, except in the fractional coins. When gold was at par, no one wanted it, for the same reason, but it was accepted with readiness, which the five-franc piece has never been, and, except for exportation, is not now.

Silver, as a representative of value, has never been able to force its way on the Italian market; and it is not the want of it, or even of gold, for the uses of the country, that causes the present trouble, but an enormously superabundant currency which is legal tender here, but, being paper, has no definite value out of the country, just as silver would not have if we had more of it than the world had need for. If the Italian loan were an internal loan, even the superabundance of paper money would not, probably, have brought on the present crisis, which at the present moment has raised the premium on gold to 6.40 per cent., with a prospect of going still higher; for as the interest on a considerable part of it is payable abroad and in gold, a very small disturbance of the balance of trade begins a drain of gold out to pay that debt, and of course the demand increases the value. Taking into account the balance of imports and exports, Italy is about thirteen millions of pounds sterling per annum in arrear; the visitors and foreign residents who draw their incomes from abroad bring in about twenty million pounds, so that the gold balance is always in favor of Italy, and the value of the investments takes up the balance, except what may go out as dividends on shares in Italian enterprises held by foreigners, which is not much.

The cause of the grave crisis in Italy is, therefore, bad political economy, for a nation which receives more gold than it spends should grow richer and be lending instead of borrowing, and its paper should be as good as gold or as Bank of England notes. The history of the present crisis is that of the financial, and to a certain extent the political, economy of Italy since 1870. When, on the completion of Italian unity, the Government decided to abolish the legal tender which had been made obligatory by the past embarrassments of an abnormal condition, a gold loan of six hundred millions of francs was contracted for the purpose of taking up the paper, which was mostly the issue of an association of banks. The first mistake of the Government was in not making the resumption of specie payments obligatory at a certain date, and holding the banks to it, *coûte que coûte*. The second mistake was in allowing the banks to issue the paper money, instead of making it an issue of the Government—a mistake which has led to making the banks so completely the arbiters of the financial position that the Government has been controlled by the banks, instead of the banks by the Government. The resumption of specie payments has been prorogued from year to year, and we have always been in the *corso forzoso*, in spite of which, and of both blunders, the premium on gold was, two years ago, merely nominal, the amount of the paper money being not above the daily needs of the country. When, however, the great building fever broke out in Rome and other Italian cities, but especially in Rome and Naples, speculation ran away with the business community, and the amount of capital demanded for the various enterprises which were floated was beyond all that the banks could command. The then Ministry (Crispi being Premier, and Grimaldi and Giolitti in the Treasury and Finance) permitted the banks to overissue, so as to meet the demand for capital, and the Banca Romana went far beyond the permission of the Ministry even. The banks made enormous profits, and, for a time, so did the speculators; and as long as the nominal value of the assets was maintained all went swimmingly. Of course the end came to the increase of the value of the real estate on which the banks had lent their paper, and with the halt in the extension of the building operations, due to the fact that there was not population enough for the houses built, came the reaction and paralysis, with the inevitable failure and extensive bankruptcy. The market was flooded with the unsecured paper, for which no use could be found, and the Government, becoming at last alarmed at the tendency, insisted on the banks bringing up the specie reserve to the legal proportion of 40 per cent. of the paper, at the same time legalizing the extraordinary emission.

The proper course was to have compelled a contraction of the currency to the amount demanded by the usual course of affairs; but the banks are too strong for the Government, and the fear of a general bankruptcy prevented the latter from compelling the former to recall their surplus paper by selling their securities, so that, what with the influence of the banks on the Deputies, and the pressure of public opinion in favor of steps being taken to relieve the embarrassments of the speculators, the Ministry could do nothing but let matters drift. The call for gold to bring up the reserves to the legal point started the premium on gold, which has been ever since rising and menaces to go to 15 per cent. The Banca Romana, the oldest of the Roman institutions, has made a fraudulent bankruptcy, the extent of which is not yet known, but the probable amount of exposure is near one hundred millions, the entire capital of the bank being invested in property which cannot be sold, or mortgages which cannot be foreclosed for want of buyers at any price; and the Banca Nazionale is involved in the same or a similar way to double the amount of its capital and reserves, while the banks of Naples and Sicily are almost as badly off. The country is flooded with paper money, not of the Government, but of private banks, which is legal tender, though if we were to come to a peremptory solution of its value, it would be about where a silver currency in the United States would be—*i. e.*, at about 50 per cent. of the nominal value, the banks holding a little less, all told, than 40 per cent. of the amount of their notes in a three-quarter gold and one-quarter silver reserve.

We are, therefore, in the same position the silverites desire the United States to put themselves in, through the possession of a currency which would be legal tender in the country, but could not go abroad except at a discount

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of about 50 per cent., simply because nobody wants paper money any more than he wants silver money, when he can get gold. The Italian public has become imbued with the idea that anything which the Government recognizes as a standard of value is sufficient for trade and commerce; it has come to the confounding of real value (or what all the world accepts as such) with credit, or tokens of value. The American public has not got so far, but the adoption of a silver standard would put the United States in the same position as Italy by establishing a forced currency of silver instead of that of paper which we have. If Italy, however, at the prices of to-day, were to declare silver its standard, it could supply the silver currency with a large profit and withdraw all the notes. But the premium on gold would rise from 7 per cent. to probably 40 per cent., for in a commercial point of view the present Italian paper is worth a larger per cent. of its nominal value than its silver currency would be, independent of the legal tender. Italy has come to grief by allowing a larger issue of money to be made than the needs of regular commerce demanded, or than could be kept in normal circulation, and the substitution of silver for the paper would not make matters better, but rather worse.

How things will end here, no one can foresee. The Government has surrendered to the banks, and the privilege of issuing the circulating medium has been confirmed to the banks for twenty years, with very slight restrictions in the conditions. As the banks will not for many years be able, even if affairs in Europe remain peaceful, to redeem their notes in gold, or sell the securities they have lent their money on, Italy will remain for that period at a disadvantage in the markets of the world, by having a currency which cannot go abroad and take the place of gold, as Bank of England or Bank of France notes do. If a great European catastrophe comes, Italy must suspend payments, and if a great epidemic should cut off the current of tourists from the peninsula for a year, there would be great danger of a smash. We had a splendid period of prosperity through the superabundance of paper money, which made everybody rich; we have the paper money still, but everybody has become very poor, trade and commerce are languishing, and there is great misery where there was great prosperity. We are an object-lesson.

W. J. S.

PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—III.

PARIS, July 20, 1893.

PASQUIER passes very rapidly over the great military events of the Empire; he says little about the battle of Essling, the victory at Wagram. After this campaign Napoleon resolved to be divorced from Josephine, notwithstanding his great affection for her. Pasquier tells us that there was a superstitious instinct in this attachment: Napoleon believed that Josephine had something to do with his good fortune, what he called his "star." Pasquier was at Fontainebleau when Fouché took upon himself to announce Napoleon's decision to Josephine, and to obtain her consent. He was also a witness of a last soirée in which Josephine did the honors of the court.

"It was the day before the official dissolution of her marriage. There was a great throng. A supper was served, as usual, on a number of small tables. Josephine sat in the middle, and the men went round her, waiting for that graceful nod of the head which she used to make to the persons she knew. I remained a few minutes at a short distance from her, and I could not help being struck with the perfection of her attitude before all those people who still surrounded her with homages, and who knew that it was the last time—that, in an hour, she would descend from the throne and leave the palace which she would never re-enter. Only women can surmount the difficulties of such a situation, but I doubt if a second one could have been found to do it with such perfect grace and measure. Napoleon's countenance was as good as that of his victim."

Pasquier was appointed Councillor of State on the 7th of February, 1810. In that capacity he took part in all the ceremonies of the marriage of Napoleon with the Archduchess Marie Louise.

"Accustomed to all the favors of fortune, Napoleon would have liked the Princess whom fortune brought to him to join to the advantages of her high birth those of an exterior at least agreeable. He mistrusted the representations which had been made to him on this score, even the portraits which had been sent to him. I have it from M. de Laborde, who accompanied the Prince of Neuchâtel to Vienna, and who returned a little before the arrival of the Empress, that he was subjected to a rather detailed interrogatory by Napoleon. This was his résumé: 'Sire, save the first look, you will be a contented husband.' This résumé was exact: the worst thing about Marie Louise was her face."

Thirteen Cardinals refused to take their places at the ceremony of the Emperor's marriage. Napoleon was much offended by their absence, which seemed a sort of protestation against his new alliance and an accusation of illegality. The Cardinals were arrested, exiled to various cities, and forbidden to wear the external marks of their dignity. Napoleon's conflict with Pope Pius VII., whom he kept prisoner, and the union of the Roman States to the French Empire, were the true reason of the attitude of the Cardinals; it must be said, however, that the Pope found means to send to the metropolitan chapter at Florence a brief in which, among his grievances against the Emperor, he spoke of the annulment of Napoleon's first marriage by the *officialité* of Paris, and declared this act irregular. "It was difficult," says Pasquier, "for a mind as suspicious as Napoleon's not to see in such an allegation a premeditated intention to contest some day the legitimacy of his children and consequently their right to the crown."

Pasquier was a very laborious Councillor of State, and, under Napoleon, the Council of State had much to do. It prepared all the laws and the minute Regulations explanatory of the new laws. Napoleon appreciated his services, without showing him any special favor, and Pasquier felt much surprise when, being one day at Fontainebleau, walking in the great gallery and waiting for the passing of the Emperor, who was going to mass, M. de Semonville whispered in his ear, "You are Prefect of Police." "For the first moment I only laughed; then I was seized with trembling, thinking that, after all, the thing was not impossible. A moment afterwards, M. de Cambacérès, approaching behind the Emperor, told me that, after the mass, I should be called into the Emperor's Cabinet and should have to take the oath as Prefect of Police." Pasquier struggled for an instant, and said to Cambacérès that he could not accept functions for which he felt himself unfit and which did not suit him. Cambacérès made him understand that it was very dangerous to go against the Emperor's wish. Pasquier entered the Emperor's room still undecided. "I represented to him that, being a stranger to all the men and the intrigues of the Revolution, I was very unfit for functions which required a profound knowledge of these antecedents." The Emperor replied that all that part of the work would remain in the department of the Duke of Rovigo; what he wished of Pasquier was to reëstablish the Prefecture of Police as a magistracy, such as existed under Sartine and Lenoir. "You have been a magistrate, and I have chosen you as such." "It was difficult," says Pasquier, "to resist such words, spoken by such a man, and an hour afterwards I took the oath."

The Duke of Rovigo was Minister of Police and Pasquier Prefect of Police; notwithstanding what Napoleon had said and wished, it was difficult always to draw the line between their attributions. There was something in the very word police, especially under an absolute government, which naturally alarmed Pasquier's friends. "I could not," he says, "conceal from myself the fact that old society ties would be sundered. Friends whose sentiments and opinions I had shared would not forgive my entering so intimately into an order of things which they had not completely accepted." Pasquier felt no drawing towards the Duke of Rovigo; he had never exchanged words with him before they dined together for the first time at the Duke of Bassano's. When he entered upon his new duties, he ascertained that the worst elements left by the Revolution had already been driven out; there were exceptions, however. One of the men of the Prefecture, who had played a very bad part during the Terror, was in direct relations with Napoleon, through Constant, the first valet of Napoleon. This man sent a bulletin every day to the Tuileries. "I could not flatter myself that the Emperor would renounce his habitual methods."

The quarrel between the Pope and Napoleon continued for several years. There was a great agitation in the Paris chapter against Cardinal Maury. At the beginning of 1811, Napoleon ordered the arrest of one of the vicar-generals of the diocese of Paris. This vicar, M. d'Astros, had among his relations M. Portalis (one of the framers of the Code Civil or Code Napoléon). Pasquier gives us a lengthy account of a scene which took place at the Council of State on the occasion of a communication which M. d'Astros had made to the Pope, who was at Savona. Asking first if M. Portalis was there, the Emperor said to him at once, in the rudest manner: "How do you dare show yourself here after the treason of which you are guilty?" Then, describing this treason, which consisted in having favored a rebellious correspondence with the Pope, with a foreign Prince, he declared that "no worse perfidy had ever been seen; that in all his lifetime he never had known one which had more revolted him, and that this perfidy came from a man who had his particular confidence. Words failed him to express his indignation."

"What I say in ten lines," says Pasquier, "was the theme of a philippic which lasted more than a quarter of an hour. As he went on, the sound of his voice, his gestures, his physiognomy assumed a more frightful character, and when he had ended everybody was dumfounded with fear and stupefaction. M. Portalis could only stammer a few words and express the conviction that he had not failed in his duties in not betraying a relation, a friend of his childhood, whom he had tried to stop in the dangerous path on which he had entered."

Pasquier, to his credit be it said, had the courage to speak and to complete the defence of Portalis. Napoleon, however, was so excited that he ordered Portalis out of the Council: "Begone, sir, and never let me see you again!" Napoleon immediately became calmer. He showed no irritation towards Pasquier. Portalis

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was exiled to Aix-en-Provence. A few days afterwards, at the Emperor's levee, everybody was looking at Pasquier when Napoleon approached him. "I am afraid, Mr. Prefect of Police, you have not a very just idea of the duties of a Councillor of State. In this, as in everything, I believe that one runs very little risk of making an error when he follows the voice of his conscience." That was all; the Emperor passed on without adding a syllable, and never again alluded to the subject. Three years afterwards, when Count Molé, Minister of Justice, placed before Napoleon the nomination of Portalis as first President of the Court of Angers, Napoleon made no objection and signed without saying a word. The exile of M. Portalis was followed by numerous arrests of priests. Two cardinals were imprisoned at Vincennes. "One can say with reason that a real terror hung at that time over the clergy of France."

Pasquier enters into minute details as to the administration of the police during this period and the various reforms he effected. At the present day we cannot take much interest in all he has to say on the interior administration of the Prefecture of Police, the reorganization of the firemen of Paris, the policing of the markets, the relations of the Prefect with the Police Commissioners, the gambling-houses, etc. Pasquier is as profuse as Count Chaptal when he speaks of his special duties and occupations; but we prefer to hear what they both have to say about Napoleon.

The King of Rome was born on the 20th of March, 1811. All the court had been summoned to the Tuileries; the accouchement was very long and difficult. Dubois, the famous surgeon, had not concealed the danger from Napoleon, and had told him that there were cases where the surgeon must sacrifice the mother or the child, in order to save one or other. "Behave, sir," said Napoleon to Dubois, "as if you had to deal with the wife of a peasant." Pasquier tells us that Napoleon probably never had a happier day in his life than this 20th of March. His countenance was radiant. He himself brought the child into the room where the most important personages of his Court and of his Government were assembled. "The father had evidently replaced the Emperor. Why did this triumph of nature not last longer!" It seems to me that there is a little naïveté in this exclamation: the Emperor had as much to do as the father in the exhibition of the child. Napoleon now thought himself master of the future as much as he was of the present. The speech which he pronounced on the day of the baptism deserves to be noted: "He never pronounced a prouder speech, his most audacious encroachments were never more bluntly avowed. The annexation to the Empire of the States of the Pope, of Holland, of the Hanseatic provinces, of the Valais, were represented as necessary consequences of his policy." Speaking of the Pope, Napoleon said: "I have given to the Popes palaces in Rome and in Paris. If they have at heart the interests of Christianity, they will often sojourn in the centre of its affairs. Saint Peter preferred Rome even to the Holy Land." He announced the future defeat of England: "A *coup de tonnerre* [he was very fond of this expression] will soon put an end to affairs in the Peninsula; it will avenge Europe and Asia and put an end to the second Punic War."

The first volume of Pasquier ends at this moment, which was the climax of Napoleon's power. It will soon be followed by the others, in which we shall see the downfall of the Empire and its consequences.

Correspondence.

OUR CONSUL AT CHRISTIANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Gade, for twenty-four years United States Consul at Christiania, Norway, has recently, without having received official notice of any sort, learned from a chance newspaper paragraph of the appointment of his successor, a person from Dakota.

Himself a Norwegian, with an American wife and children educated in America, Mr. Gade has been peculiarly well fitted to assist and entertain Americans travelling in Norway. During a term of service which would, under any Government but our own, be in itself considered the strongest witness in his favor, he has not been content with fulfilling conscientiously the duties of his office. His beautiful country-seat, a few miles outside of Christiania, has been the scene of a lavish and devoted hospitality, extended to Americans of every degree on the simple ground of their nationality. After four and twenty years of such loving service, this faithful officer of the United States has the door of his consulate shut upon him without a word of explanation, excuse, or thanks.

Fortunately the nomination of his successor cannot be confirmed for more than a fortnight, and there is still time for reconsideration on the part of the Department of State. Will not those journals which have been the faithful upholders of Mr. Cleveland in his efforts at civil-service reform help in bringing to his attention this flagrant violation of its principles?

L. W. H.

July 23, 1893.

A MEASURE WITH A HOLE IN IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While we are all waiting, as well as we can, until Congress shall say to the world in plain words that the people of the United States will continue to measure values and pay debts in money as good as that of other great civilized nations, we might as well amuse ourselves by telling stories. To begin it, I send you a very short story about a milkman.

Our milkman at "The Farms" has for many years done a good business selling milk to a hundred or more families. Some time ago one of his boys punched a hole in his quart measure, and because he thought it would cost too much to have it mended by a regular tinman, he let another boy patch it up. When he got to my house this morning, he found his measure had a hole in it again. He was in an awful state of mind. He said he could not sell any milk without a measure. If he gave too little, people would not buy, and if he gave too much he should lose money. Besides, if he had to haggle over the quantity with every customer, in this hot weather, the milk would spoil before he could sell it.

I told him he ought not to have been so foolish as to keep a broken measure. But I really pitied the poor man, for he is hard-working and honest, so I said, to comfort him, "Well, your cows are not dead, nor your customers either; so if you can get a good quart measure before to-morrow, there will be little harm done, except to the poor sick children who cannot wait a day for their milk." E. W. H.

The Farms, July 31, 1893.

SIEMERING'S WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The headline that so offends Dr. Rösing is not mine, nor have I used the words attributed to me. The context should make it plain that the expression "incongruous pile" cannot imply a want of harmony in the design of the monument, but refers to its incongruity with the aspect and architecture of the old building.

A word as to the origin of the prevailing impression that one statue was suggested by the other. At the public meeting held in the Mayor's office, to consider the question of site, a gentleman speaking for the Society of the Cincinnati volunteered the information that the Washington Monument had been designed "after" that to Frederick. Precisely what meaning he may have attached to the word "after," no one but himself can say, but the impression left upon his audience may fairly be inferred. In the same connection he referred to the similar height of the two monuments. The information was accepted as the frank avowal of a sincere, straightforward, and modest man, such as everybody who knew Prof. Siemering knew him to be. It would have seemed rather an overstrained scrupulosity had we then known that there "is nothing in the Washington Monument that resembles the other" save "the cocked hat worn by Washington and Frederick in the same way."

But unfortunately the popular prints seemed to recall, to persons familiar with it, the Frederick monument, and in the absence of any denial of the assertion of a common motive, that I am aware of, during the long period of discussion, the impression became fixed, and I for one must confess to having taken it for granted, without making sufficient investigation before rushing into print. I accept implicitly Dr. Rösing's assurance that there is no such resemblance, and beg to offer the *amende honorable*, with the expression of unfeigned regret for any injustice unwittingly done.

No one here, I may add, questions the thorough academical knowledge and technical skill that have been brought to bear upon this important work, nor does any one competent to judge doubt that, in a fitting location, its grandeur, grace of line, and justness of proportion will make it one of the wonders of America. It is gratifying to learn that the artist had thought of Fairmount Park, as a statement made at a meeting held in the Council Chamber that, having been shown a map of the city, he had approved of the State-house yard, had caused surprise and disappointment.

My only consolation for having allowed myself to be influenced by the feeling of exasperation aroused by the persistent effort to erect the monument where it would have offended the best taste and sentiment of the people, is the reflection that the words of an anonymous and ignorant writer cannot affect the verdict of posterity upon what Dr. Rösing tells us is, "in sublimity of conception, originality of composition, and perfection in all parts, to be ranked among the *chefs-d'œuvre* of all time."

Help.

Philadelphia, July 28, 1893.

THE MOST PICTURESQUE PLACE IN THE WORLD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From a brief newspaper notice of Mr. and Mrs. Pennell's article in the July *Century* on "The Most Picturesque Place in the World,"

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I at once identified the place so mysteriously described as one very vivid in my memory of my wanderings in France many years ago, and a glance into the article and its pictures establishes this locality as without doubt the city of Le Puy in the Auvergne. The wonder is that a place made so famous by its colossal bronze statue of the Virgin, which ranks in size with the Bavaria in Munich and the Liberty of New York, the authors should have thought so unfamiliar to travellers. Its attractiveness is not at all exaggerated by the article in question; and inasmuch as the authors seem to challenge a guess at their unique problem, it can hardly be considered a breach of privacy to reveal to the public where this rare goal is to be found.—Yours very truly,

FRANK SEWALL.

COVENTRY HALL, YORK VILLAGE, MAINE.

Notes.

ANSON D. F. RANDOLPH & CO. have nearly ready 'Shakspere's Female Characters,' by Helen Faucit (Lady Martin); 'Across France in a Caravan,' by John Wallace, with fifty illustrations; 'Where We Went Gipsying across the Sea,' by Wm. Bement Lent, in two volumes; 'Pictured Palestine,' by the Rev. H. Neill; 'Memoranda Sacra,' by Prof. J. R. Harris; 'Women's Thoughts, from Famous Women,' and 'Men's Thoughts, from American Statesmen.'

D. Appleton & Co. will issue directly 'A Truthful Woman in Southern California,' by Miss Kate Sanborn, and 'From the Five Rivers,' pictures of life in India by Mrs. F. A. Steel.

Among new editions on our table is 'A Catholic Dictionary: Containing some account of the Doctrine, Discipline, Rites, Ceremonies, Councils, and Religious Orders of the Catholic Church' (New York: Benziger Bros.). This is an English work, first published in 1883, and now revised and enlarged with American collaboration. It could not well escape being both apologetic and polemical, and Protestants may consult it profitably for its latter-day reading of such historical topics as indulgences, Inquisition, the Reformation, etc., as well as for its definitions and expositions.

Busbey's biennial 'Biographical Directory of the Railway Officials of America' is issued for the present year by the (Chicago) *Railway Age and Northwestern Railroader*. It is a strictly professional account of railway service in the most condensed form; or, if it now and again deviates a little from this purpose, as when it tells where such an official was educated, who his parents were, or whom he married, this only gives the stamp of authenticity to the data as having been furnished and revised by the subject of them. The well-printed volume consists of upwards of 400 pages octavo, and records the careers of some 4,000 individuals, all living at the time of going to press.

Another well-executed work is the 'United States Official Hotel Directory,' "for the use of commercial travellers, tourists, merchants, and the hotel fraternity" (New York: Hotel Red Book and Directory Co.). The arrangement is alphabetical by States, with information as to local population, accessibility by railway, summer and winter resorts, grade of hotel, price of board, etc. Reference by numbers is made to a very useful list of railroads and water routes, with their terminal points, in this country and in Canada. The typography is excellent.

We should count that week lost which did not produce a new guide to Chicago. Mr. John J. Flinn has subjected his 'Standard Guide' to a thorough overhauling, though it is only in its third year. In that period, he says, "our population has grown from 1,098,576 to over 1,500,000," with corresponding extension of buildings and sections. He now lays out ten daily trips in which to view the city, following these with chapters of general information and with a statistical appendix. The work has been entirely reset in small type, with a substantial reduction in the number of pages. The illustrations have been greatly multiplied rather than improved.

Mr. F. P. Kenkel, Chicago, has had the happy thought to publish 'The Story of Chicago, Told in Pictures; or, From the Log Cabin to the World's Fair." The origins of the city are very interestingly shown by the aid of old prints, and photographic process prints display very well the present features of Chicago's streets and parks. The middle period, embracing the great fire, is rather dreary, and the element of beauty enters but sparingly into the whole series of plates. The legend of the panorama may be read in English, German, and Swedish.

Percy Lindley's 'Walks in the Ardennes,' though a railroad publication, is a minute and useful guide to this part of France and as readable as may be. It is interspersed with cuts. The new edition may be had at No. 30 Fleet Street, London.

Francis Seymour Stevenson's 'Historic Personality' (Macmillan) consists of judicious little comments on the most celebrated works of biography, autobiography, diaries, memoirs, letters, table-talk, characters, etc. It is a charmingly printed book with a tasteful cover, and nice reading-matter to correspond, which nobody need fear will give him a headache by reason of the intensity of the thought.

M. Gustave Reynier has written a book on 'Thomas Corneille, sa vie et son théâtre' (Paris: Hachette), in which he endeavors to show that Thomas is unfairly overshadowed by Pierre, and that the public has not done the former full justice. M. Reynier, it is true, concedes that Thomas Corneille wrote very badly and sought immediate profit at the expense of future glory, and in doing so the author practically acknowledges the justice of the public verdict. He has made an entertaining and a useful book, to which students of seventeenth-century literature in France will be glad to refer, but he will not make any one become a devotee of Thomas Corneille, nor, spite of Nisard's authority to back him, will he induce any man of taste and judgment to prefer Thomas's "Ariane" to Racine's "Phèdre."

Amblard & Meyer have brought out, in the "Collection Lemerre Illustrée," Coppée's 'Rivales,' a story of selfish love on the part of a youthful poet, and of unselfish love on the part of two women. These Lemerre editions are excellent specimens of book-making, with their good paper, wide margins, and clear type.

In *La Réforme Sociale* for June 16, the leading article is a review, by the Comte de Bizemont, of a book entitled 'Les Grandes Compagnies de Commerce,' by M. Pierre Bonnassieux (Plon, 1892). Twenty-five years ago great chartered companies as a means of developing colonies were looked upon as an obsolete idea, worthy only of the mercantile theories of the last century. Since then we have witnessed a remarkable change. An international association of this kind founded the Congo Free State, now a purely Belgian concern; and Great Britain, Germany, and Portugal have followed in the same path. In France, though no such companies have yet been chartered, their advisability has been actively discussed, for no other Power owns so much totally undeveloped tropical land, and French private capital is cautious and unenterprising. The Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques having offered prizes for the best works on the question, M. Bonnassieux was one of the winners. He describes and discusses the great chartered companies of the past, French and foreign, and his conclusion, as well as that of his reviewer, is in favor of creating new ones, though, like Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, he regards them as only pioneers which in course of time will outlive their usefulness. The success or failure of this revived method of opening up undeveloped territories is a problem of great economic interest. While it is still too early to judge the work of the commercial companies founded in the last ten years, on the whole, the result so far is not encouraging.

The number for June 15 of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* contains an appreciative and interesting review of M. Gréard's entertaining book, 'Nos Adieux à la vieille Sorbonne' (Paris: Hachette). The famous old school of theology, which eclipsed so long the regular Faculty of Theology, has its story told sympathetically by M. Gréard, who has aimed mainly at a faithful portrayal of the spirit and life of the College from its foundation in the reign of St. Louis down to the present day. Very many students will be surprised to learn that there was much liberality of spirit in the institution, even in the days of Pascal, of Montesquieu, of Voltaire, of Rousseau. If they have not the time to read M. Gréard's book, they will get a succinct analysis of it, and, consequently, a condensed history of the Sorbonne, in M. Achille Luchaire's review.

One often experiences the discomfort of a conflict between his sympathies and his principles when he passes some pitiable specimen of the begging fraternity on the street. This is largely because any individual beggar is a mystery representing possibilities of suffering. If one knew the facts in the case, sympathy would probably be less spontaneous, but few have ever attempted a systematic study of the beggar type. There is, however, a new book just announced from Paris by M. Louis Paulian, with the title 'Paris qui mendie,' one chapter of which is published in the *Revue Bleue* of July 15. Judging from this chapter, the book must contain material fresh even to those interested in social studies. It reminds one of Montagu Williams's books, and especially of what he says in 'Round London' on "Griddlers, or street singers." M. Paulian has evidently made a careful investigation into the methods of Paris beggars, and the stories with which he enlivens his descriptions are diverting.

The French Syndicat pour la Protection de la Propriété Littéraire et Artistique presented, at the Authors' Congress lately held in Chicago, a Note on the International Copyright Act of March 3, 1891. The Syndicate's object is to point out, on behalf of French authors and artists, the imperfections and shortcomings of the act, with a view to their being remedied at a future meeting of Congress. The provisions which bear most harshly upon foreign authors and artists are those which require simultaneous publication in the two countries, and reproduction or remanufacture of the book or other work in the United States, as an essential condition of protection. The Note asks that the former provision be so amended as to allow authors or artists to make the necessary regis-

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tration and deposits with United States consuls abroad instead of at Washington, and that a year be granted for this purpose. With regard to the second, the Note recommends that the provision be abrogated as of no practical benefit to American firms, and as being a serious inconvenience and needless expense not to foreign authors alone, but to the American public, which, in the end, has to bear the increased cost entailed by reproduction in this country.

The seventh number in the series of monographs entitled "North American Fauna," published by the Department of Agriculture, relates to the Death Valley Expedition. The first or narrative portion is yet to appear, but Part II. was issued on May 31. It consists of reports on the birds, reptiles, and batrachians, fishes, insects, and mollusks of the interesting region in question, as well as on the desert trees and shrubs and desert cactuses and yuccas—these last being by the director of the expedition, Dr. C. Hart Merriam. The volume closes with a list, by T. S. Palmer, of localities visited by the expedition, with altitudes and descriptive notes. There are fifteen plates, mostly botanical, and a folded map of the route of the expedition.

Two reprints from the Bulletin of the United States Fish Commission for 1893 are Prof. S. A. Forbes's preliminary report on the Aquatic Invertebrate Fauna of the Yellowstone National Park and of the Flathead Region of Montana, and Bashford Dean's report on the European Methods of Oyster-Culture. Both pamphlets are illustrated, the latter profusely from photographs, showing Italian, Dutch, Belgian, and English modes of cultivating the oyster.

The salt and gypsum industries of New York form the subject of the Bulletin of the New York State Museum for April, 1893. The text has been prepared mainly by the Assistant State Geologist, Frederick J. H. Merrill, with the aid of F. E. Englehardt for the local section on salt and of William C. Clarke for that on gypsum. A colored map shows the extensive tract embraced by these industries, and there are numerous photographic illustrations, geologic sections, etc.

A correspondent in Baltimore writes to us as follows: "In a book destined to be so widely read by foreigners as Baedeker's 'United States,' it seems worth while to point out all defects. Prof. McMaster, in the introductory historical sketch, gives Greene the credit of winning the battle at the Cowpens. This, of course, was won by Morgan."

Not long ago we commented on a prize translation of Tennyson's "Silent Voices" into Italian by the veteran Antonio Ghislanzoni, author, among divers other literary productions, of the libretto of Verdi's "Aida," in which he had the archæological assistance of Mariette Bey. His own is now among the silent voices, for the Italian press announces his death on the night of July 15–16, in or hard upon his seventieth year.

—Fiction, as might be expected, plays a prominent part in the August magazines. *Scribner's*, indeed, devotes itself entirely to the task of amusing the nomadic summer populace by such means, dropping for the nonce all matters in which serious information is of the first importance—unless we may except Julian Ralph's "catchy" account of the life of the newspaper correspondent, on whose exalted station in the modern world of society and politics he lays much stress. This profusion of stories, however, gives the contemplative reader something more than amusement when he reflects that they represent the kinds and grades of prose fiction which are supposed to meet most surely the midsummer approval of a well-bred but much-bored constituency. The method of Howells and James, it is significant, is conspicuous by its absence, and the subject of the half-a-dozen stories here presented is in each case foreign, unusual, or quaint. A fretful American woman in Florence is aghast at the unending toil and utter penury of a family of Italian artisans, charmed at the quaintness of speech which she finds in their every-day language, and deeply moved by their willing self-sacrifice. A gambler and a variety actress, each masquerading in the hope of making a rich match and leading a new life, fail tragically in their purposes. A dear old granny at the poor-farm, her pocket filled by an unexpected legacy, steals away to the Centennial, and tastes cosmopolitan delights which she had all her life vainly longed for. Fanatic meets fanatic in a remote country district when war wrought enthusiasts to their highest. On a sinking ship the rich maiden confesses, unasked, the love she bears her penniless lover. Evidently romanticism, in forms however widely diverse, still holds the field, and the "truthful" study of the real world about us cannot yet be relied on for amusement in dog-days.

—In *Harper's*, on the other hand, the trend of fiction seems at first slightly less towards studies in out-of-the-way corners of the world and of life, as a means of amusement, and more towards the common ground of familiar experience. A young man about to topple over into indolence and vice is brought back to strenuousness by the very forces that might have fed his laxity; in a florist's shop the rambling conversation of chance purchasers builds up a little plot in which love and death and an afternoon tea are not unnaturally commingled; and two young artists fall in love with perfect ease and with no hint of high tragedy past or to follow. But even here the contrary influence is plainly visible. The gentleman's son loves the prize-fighter's daughter; the Philistine business man is really a hero; witchcraft and vulgar superstition play their horrid parts; and the snobbish wife, who, in serio-comic fashion, despises her husband's peasant mother, is thwarted by heaven-sent means. On the whole, one cannot escape from the conclusion that we are as a people adjudged by the magazine editors not yet ripe, at least in summer-time, for the realism by virtue of which we look seriously and without extravagance at the world that, commonplace or extraordinary, falls fully within the limits of our human and national experience. The more serious articles in the number are all of interest, especially that which recommends to the attention of the Society for Psychical Research the Cock Lane ghost of 1762, about the fraudulence of whose proceedings Dr. Johnson was so vehement; and Mr. Platt's notes on Italian Renaissance gardens, which he thinks may prove useful models in certain portions of our country.

—The August *Atlantic* does not tempt the languor of its summer readers by an excess of fiction. On the contrary, its somewhat old-fashioned solidity of contents is perhaps more than ordinarily apparent. Senator Dawes describes the flippant lightness with which the grave situation of the winter of 1860–'1 was regarded at Washington; the study of Petrarch's correspondence is continued; and other articles deal with the religious and philosophical teachings of the Upanishads—which, the author thinks, lie in the highest planes of thought which the human mind has ever reached—and with the lives of Miss Clough, first principal of Newnham College, and Jonathan Belcher, Governor of Massachusetts from 1730 to 1741. Most worthy of discussion, however, is Prof. Shaler's statement of the relations between academic and technical instruction, and his proposition that isolated technological institutions run great risks of extinction and would do well to seek shelter under the wings of existing universities. It might be argued, on the contrary, that the rapid growth of scientific education does not forbid the surmise that fifty years hence some one may write patronizingly of the advantages colleges might obtain by putting themselves under the protection of technical schools. Even now what might not one of our typical colleges, with its wandering bands of athletes and minstrels, with club life and social life in the ascendency, gain by association with a large engineering school, where constant industry and almost exclusive devotion to routine work are the sole measure of a student's success? And how might not many an introspective and dilettante young collegian of to-day profit by the proximity of a thousand earnest young fellows, already grappling with the difficulties and duties of their unpedantic professions?

—An engraving of Phillips Brooks's familiar and noble face forms the preface to the *Century* for August, and is followed by a collection of a dozen of his letters to his little nieces, written from various parts of Europe and the East. Better children's letters could scarcely be imagined, and they bear witness again to his wonderful power of adapting himself to the point of view of any reader or hearer who could be reached rather by love and human sympathy than by learning or power of logic. Of other famous Americans we get a glimpse in Mr. Stillman's description of a camping-party in the Adirondacks in 1858, of which Lowell, Emerson, Agassiz, and Dr. Jeffries Wyman were members, and of which Emerson recorded his impressions in "The Adirondacks." In the rest of the number the interest centres on foreign rather than on American subjects. An unusually fortunate and venturesome traveller draws a striking picture of Fez, and Jonas Stadling continues an account of the charitable work of the Tolstois in the famine-stricken provinces of Russia, which chills the blood with its evidently veracious details of heartrending scenes of destitution, disease, and death. In another thoughtful letter from Japan, Mr. La Farge describes the majestic statue of Buddha at Kamakura, and Mr. Fenollosa gives a more than usually lucid exposition of contemporary Japanese art, with illustrations from notable paintings and pieces of carving at the World's Fair. Another article is devoted to the etchings of Anders Zorn. The most interesting—on other than artistic grounds—of those reproduced is that of Renan, done in the great man's own study not long before his death, and noteworthy as making him appear the thorough idealist he was.

—Every word of *Mélusine* for May-June is from the indefatigable pen of the editor, M. Henri Gaidoz. His chief article, on "Le Grand Diable d'Argent, patron de la Finance," repeats a service he has recently rendered by tracking one of the colored broadsides sold by colporteurs among the common people of France to its origin in the middle ages or in classical or pre-classical antiquity. The one bearing the above title is, M. Gaidoz thinks,

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probably the last of its kind, the illustrated newspaper having undermined the business; but he was able to procure it of the manufacturers, the Maison Pellerin at Épinal. It represents a winged and horned devil with a flowing cloak, mounted upon a sort of altar, and showering money from his hands, his purse, and his hind parts upon types of his favorites—the pastry-cook, the tapster, the baker, the *procureur*, the courtesan. The artist and a vast crowd behind hold the Money Devil by his tail—and get nothing; whence, says M. Gaidoz, the expression "tirer le diable par la queue," meaning 'to be in want.' An old print in the Bibliothèque Nationale, reproduced by *Mélusine*, shows the same allegory, with accompanying verses. Our modern broadside, too, has its verses, but they are older than the design, for there are references to figures which have been eliminated from the picture in the process of counterfeiting earlier designs. A nearer original (pictorially speaking) is the Glémaric print copied from Champfleury, an artistic arrangement of the leading personages enumerated above, with the addition of the poet and the artist among the tail-bearers. Nothing is more interesting than a comparison of this drawing, which dates from the seventeenth century, with the broadside evolved from it say about 1850. The tailor finds a place in neither except in the verse of the broadside; well, M. Gaidoz traces him to a Chartres broadside of the beginning of the present century as described by M. Garnier. Quite another and ancient design is that of the Money Devil, built of coins, in his stronghold, being aimed at by men with all sorts of weapons; and this is echoed in some Belgian and French leaden tokens of the sixteenth century. M. Gaidoz then transports us to a Pompeian mural painting, showing Mercury flitting over the land with purse extended, and, in brief, by text and pictures, connects him closely with the later Money Devil—the superseded pagan gods, he says, having been allowed by Christianity to exist as devils: "for what is more orthodox than the Devil? He is as orthodox as God himself." The whole study is a very brilliant one.

—Sectional sentiment, as well as the stamp of the times, can be discerned in the resolutions whereby two Southern State Universities have decided to admit women. The Board of Trustees of the University of Alabama have resolved that "Young women of not less than eighteen years of age, of good character and antecedents, who are able to stand the necessary examinations, be admitted to the Sophomore class or any higher class of this University, provided that suitable homes and protection have been provided for them, under such rules and regulations as may be prescribed by the President in consultation with the Faculty." This action has met with such unqualified general approval that the Faculty is not expected to make any invidious distinction on account of sex. Almost contemporaneously with the above comes an official announcement from Knoxville that the University of Tennessee "declares its intention to admit women hereafter, of the full age of seventeen years, to all benefits and privileges of this institution." Women properly recommended as to character may enter all the departments, hold the State scholarships, and enjoy all other privileges under the same regulations as men, with the following exceptions: as the University has no suitable dormitories for women, they will not be allowed to live on the grounds, except in the families of the Faculty, but the Dean will provide a list of approved private families where women can board at moderate rates. "Separate homes will be found for male and female students." An association of ladies in Knoxville has undertaken to raise money for a woman's building at the University, but in the meantime the Trustees have set apart a house conveniently situated for the exclusive use of women students, and have directed that it be arranged with "a parlor, study-hall, music-room, literary society hall, and toilet rooms." Qualified women can enter the University and take advanced or special courses. This new departure of the University of Tennessee, in connection with the new State law of 1893, which provides a broad and liberal scheme of State scholarships, will doubtless furnish a healthy stimulus to female secondary education in Tennessee. While the new code of Mississippi authorizes the admission of women to the State University, it is an open secret that the Board of Visitors of the University of Virginia have before them the recommendation of a majority of the Faculty, that women be admitted to this conservative institution of learning. The Board, at a special meeting (July 20), ventured so far as to refer the vexed question back to the Faculty, with a request that they present a suitable plan "for recognizing the rights of women to higher education, . . . in accordance with the teaching plan of their University."

—We are late in taking up vol. i. of Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's 'Writings of Thomas Jefferson' (Putnams), an edition which is to rank on the shelf beside the Washington, Franklin, Hamilton, and Jay published by the same firm, and which, from present appearances, will endure comparison with any of them. Mr. Ford's sources, in addition to the well-used Jefferson MSS. in the Department of State, have been documents in the hands of Jefferson's descendants, the Virginia archives, the papers of the Continental Congress, the private papers of Washington and other Revolutionary writers, the files of the French Foreign Office, etc., etc. Mr. Ford introduces his compilation with a summary view of the paradoxical features of Jefferson's opinions and career, a bibliography, and a minute itinerary and chronology for the period covered by the present volume (1743–1745)—a very useful apparatus. The Autobiography of 1821 is given verbatim, and is annotated in a careful and scholarly manner, with candid corrections of the errors in an old man's recollection. Thus, Jefferson's imagining that he had led off in an attempt to prohibit the further importation of slaves into Virginia is shown conclusively to have been mistaken. Mr. Ford also discusses anew, and again conclusively, the question whether the Declaration of Independence was actually subscribed on July 4 or on any one day. The 'Ana' follows the Autobiography, and then we have the Correspondence, beginning with the youthful letters of 1760, and interspersed chronologically with Jefferson's essays, political resolutions and addresses, reports, declarations, legal arguments, and even advertisements, with ingenious presentation of rough drafts. There is not much else to remark on this stage of the work, but we may quote the sentiment of John Adams regarding the election of Senators (p. 277): "That he thought our Senate as well constituted as it could have been, being chosen by the legislatures, for if these could not support them, he did not know what could do it; that perhaps it might have been as well for them to be chosen by the States at large, as that would insure a choice of distinguished men, since none but such could be known to a whole people." But how could Adams have foreseen that "choice" would in the end be denied to the "whole people" except as Hobson's choice or a choice between evils—nomination and selection having been completely taken away from the electors by interested partisanship?

GEN. ANTHONY WAYNE.—II.

Major-General Wayne and the Pennsylvania Line in the Continental Army. By Charles J. Stillé, President of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1893.

It seems to Dr. Stillé that something like mildew has fallen on the names of once illustrious Pennsylvanians who bore a leading part in the formative periods of our pre-Revolutionary and Revolutionary history. In an earlier volume, reviewed in these columns, he sought to recover for John Dickinson's civil fame the heritage of which it had been defrauded; and in the volume before us he seeks to recapitulate a "lost," or at least a "neglected, chapter" in the military history of the country, for the sake of doing something like adequate justice to "the achievements of a most distinguished soldier of Pennsylvania." So far from reproaching the author with too much zeal in the discharge of his pious office, we can only wish that he had been still more industrious in scraping lichen from the tombstone of a neglected but unforgotten worthy.

Dr. Stillé sees plainly enough why it was that the "sudden making of splendid names" was arrested in Pennsylvania at the dawn of American Independence. "It should never be forgotten," he says, "that during the Revolutionary war the struggle [in Pennsylvania] was not merely between the rulers of Pennsylvania and the open enemy, the British Army, but also between them and the fierce opposition of a powerful party in their own State." And so it came to pass, he adds, that "Pennsylvania fought in the Revolution like a man with one arm tied behind his back." Even the Declaration of Independence "was looked upon by many at the time as a party triumph, and was followed up here, as nowhere else, by measures that drove from the public service many men of the highest character who had up to that time been regarded as the foremost patriots of the State." Where this dissidence did not drive men from the public service, it threw their names into dim eclipse from which they never emerged.

Dr. Stillé makes no concealment of the fact that his sympathies are with the Pennsylvanian cause that was conquered in the civic feud of that time. He thinks it was hardly to be expected that the "men of high social position who had belonged to the governing class under the old régime in Pennsylvania should give up their control without a fierce struggle." They had their reasons for sneering at the Revolutionary Constitution of that State as "the work of the radical mob." It was no secret at the time that the well-known resolution of May 10, 1776 (declaring that "each one of the United Colonies, where no government sufficient to the exigencies of their affairs had as yet been established, should adopt such government as would, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular and of America in general") was pressed in the Continental Congress by John Adams and his coadjutors for the express purpose of forcing the hands of the Pennsylvania Assembly and of making independence a civil

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necessity. That resolution marks the watershed of our Revolutionary politics. It virtually proclaimed the *déchéance* of the Pennsylvania Assembly, and the "patriots" of the State took the Congress at its word more literally and precipitately, perhaps, than was either expected or desired. It was said at the time, with much iteration of phrase, that "the proprietary gentlemen" were more solicitous to keep the scabbards of their swords unsoiled than to wield their swords in a battle *à outrance* for the rights of the colonies. The "proprietary gentlemen" (at least those of them who were real patriots and not Loyalists in disguise) rejoined, on the other hand, that it was precisely because they wished to keep their swords sharp and bright for the impending fray that they were unwilling to throw away the scabbard of the Constitution in which their swords were sheathed.

We cannot now translate these rhetorical metaphors into the cold historic facts which they were meant to subtend. The only thing not open to debate in the whole political situation of Pennsylvania at this crisis is the bitter moral which that situation points against too much vacillation in a time of revolution, and against the over-conservatism which leads on to revolutionary radicalism. Goethe has pointed for us the same useful moral in that idyll of a troubled epoch in the border wars of the French Revolution, his 'Hermann und Dorothea,' where he says that

> "The man who wavers in a wavering time
> Does but augment the evil which he fears.
> And wider, wider makes it spread."

The "proprietary gentlemen" sought too sedulously to restrain and moderate the rising tide of the popular revolt, until at last the tide, incapable of control, swept away the dikes of the old Constitution. Whether in all this we should see, with John Dickinson, the *civium ardor prava jubentium*, or, with John Adams, the irregular but righteous overthrow of "cowardice and Toryism," will remain matter of opinion among men of equal candor and intelligence, according to the varying weights they may give to the elements involved in their calculus of historical probabilities.

Aside from disputed questions of this kind, which have shaded the fame of others in Pennsylvania, it will be cheerfully conceded by every candid reader that Dr. Stillé has established the claim of Gen. Wayne to a higher repute for military capacity than it has been common to ascribe to him. It is abundantly shown that Washington reposed confidence in his military insight and discretion, as well as in the *élan* with which he "stepped among the first for glory," to use one of his own favorite expressions. The epithet of "Mad Anthony," it seems, was not attached to him till late in the war, and originated from the random and misunderstood remark of a camp-follower, "subject to fits of insanity." Dr. Stillé thinks that the way in which the sobriquet adhered to his name "is a curious illustration of the manner in which certain nicknames become fastened upon illustrious personages." But such military nicknames as the "Iron Duke," "Marshal Vorwärts," "Rough and Ready," "Stonewall" Jackson, carry with them their own explanation. When the Indians of the Northwest gave to Wayne the nickname of *Sukachgook*, "the Blacksnake," they meant to point the secrecy and celerity of his movements and the tenacity with which he wound his military coils around his Indian foe. It is not so certain, then, it seems to us, that there was nothing in the psychology of Wayne which lent itself to such fantastic characterization. It is admitted by his biographer that he had his weaknesses. He was "constitutionally vain." He had that perfervid genius which wreaks itself on expression. "He was somewhat addicted," says Graydon, "to the vaunting style of Marshal Villars." He was as irascible and *pundonoroso* as a Spanish grandee. A certain devil-may-care *insouciance* and slap-dash grandiloquence of speech crop out in his familiar letters, as being native to his mental structure and peculiar idiom. The idiosyncrasy meets us everywhere, as when he writes to his wife from Ticonderoga that he hopes soon to lead on his men "to death or glory"; or as when he writes to his brother-in-law that Ticonderoga "appeared to be the last part of the world that God had made," and that his soldiers there, "for want of other vessels," were drinking out of the skulls left on the spot by Abercrombie's men, and were "making tent pins of their shin and thigh bones"; or as when he hinted, for the benefit of Lieut.-Col. Sherman, that "he [Wayne] would put up with no man's insults," and so brought that gentleman to his marrowbones; or as when he wrote to Major Posey that if in a certain communication he meant to intimate that he (Posey) had "supplied" at Stony Point a certain "prowess" which had been wanting in the General commanding in that exploit—"then I know that you will have candor enough to acknowledge it—not to me as your superior officer, but to me as a private gentleman *very tenacious of my honor*, which honor is now pledged to meet you *on that ground only*." *Hotspur*, though much more fastidious, could not have been more testy in speech than was Wayne.

It would be a mistake, however, to infer, even from such expressions as these, that the military genius of Wayne was of a headlong sort, or that, as was said of the Numidian cavalry in ancient times, he was "all spur and no bridle." When duty called, he could be of "iron nerve to true occasion true," whether that occasion called him to do or to endure. It would be ridiculous to find in him all the lineaments with which Wordsworth has portrayed his "Character of the Happy Warrior," and we must take the liberty of thinking that Dr. Stillé deals in gold-leaf rather than in the beaten gold of the sanctuary when he says that, after Wayne's campaign in Georgia, "he was no longer spoken of as 'Mad Anthony,' for his achievements made him worthy to rank as a strategist with Turenne or the Duke of Marlborough." If something is due to the loyalties of biography, something is also due to the perspectives of history.

We have left ourselves no space for the review of Wayne's campaign against the Indians. But we could wish that Dr. Stillé, in tracing the nexus of historic events, had dwelt more at length on what he apparently deems an incident of the battle of Fallen Timbers, but which, in fact, proved to be the pivot of the whole subsequent transaction had with the defeated Indians. It is known that the battle was fought almost within the range of the guns of a British fort. The Indians had expected that their British allies would interpose for their succor, but though Maj. Campbell, the commander of the fort, was loud with his pen in the way of protest, he was reticent with his cannon. The Indians were moved to wrath at being left so unexpectedly in the lurch. It seemed to them an act of treachery, and, with a new love on where the old love was off, they turned to make the Treaty of Greeneville with the warrior who, as they said, "never slept," and who kept his word of promise as well as his word of threat. The story is well told in Stone's 'Life of Joseph Brant.' And besides, the study of this campaign, with a view to its place in the larger logic of events, would have thrown a clear light on what seems to Dr. Stillé so obscure, viz., why it was that the leaders in the American Revolution made such "prodigious efforts to induce the Canadians to join us in the revolt against the English Government." If the biographer had turned to the correspondence of John Adams in 1776 ('Works of John Adams,' vol. ix., p. 399), he would have found a clear exposition of the strategic value of Canada in the eyes of the Continental Congress. Under date of June 16, 1776, John Adams writes:

> "The Regulars [of the British Army], if they get full possession of that province [Canada], and the navigation of the St. Lawrence River above Deschambault, at least above the mouth of the Sorel, will have nothing to interrupt their communication with Niagara, Detroit, Michilimackinac; they will have the navigation of the five great Lakes quite as far as the Mississippi River; they will have a free communication with all the numerous tribes of Indians extended along the frontiers of all the colonies, and, by their trinkets and bribes, will induce them to take up the hatchet and spread blood and fire among the inhabitants; by which means all the frontier inhabitants will be driven in upon the middle settlements, at a time when the inhabitants of the seaports and coasts will be driven back by the British Navy. Is this picture too high-colored? Perhaps it is, but surely we must maintain our power in Canada."

It is precisely because all the expeditions against Canada had failed at the beginning of the Revolution that the campaign of Gen. Sullivan against the Six Nations and their Tory allies became a hard military necessity in 1779. And it was not until the Indian power had been effectually broken by the blow delivered on the Miami Rapids that the path of empire, leading westward, was opened to the United States. What was there accomplished in 1795, the Fathers of the Revolution had sought to secure by the occupation of Canada at the outbreak of the Revolution. Other motives there were at the bottom of the movement, but the military strategy was clear, and that strategy sets in only a clearer light the significance which should be attached to the victory of Wayne. What he had sought to accomplish at Three Rivers near the Sorel in 1776, without knowing, perhaps, the full drift of the Congressional policy, he brought to a successful close in 1795, when the drift of the American policy was no longer dark. This logic of events gives a singular unity to the military career of Wayne, and it seems a pity that Dr. Stillé should have missed it, from not perceiving the strategic position of Canada at the beginning of the Revolution.

We can, in conclusion, but hint some slight dissent from a few of Dr. Stillé's biographical appreciations. He mistakes in supposing that the murmuring letter of October 14, 1778, in which Wayne threatened to leave "the blustering field of Mars," was written only in draught and was "never sent." It was probably addressed to Gen. Charles Lee, and may be found in the papers of that officer, as published by the New York Historical Society in the "Collections" of 1873. Wayne, it is known, received a scalp-wound in the assault on Stony Point. Dr. Stillé thinks it "worth remarking that Gen. Wayne in his official report [to Washington] makes no mention of his wound." It would seem, therefore, "worth remarking" that he referred to it three or four times in a supplementary report to the President of Congress and other communications. If it was worth remarking that the House of Representatives struck out his name from the resolution of

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thanks voted to the army for the victory over the Indians, it would seem worth mentioning that the Senate retained his name with honorable mention in the Address to the President, though there too an effort was made to strike it out. That the Chester County Committeeman, whose soul was vexed within him by the presence of slavery in Pennsylvania in 1775, and who wrote, when he heard in 1777 that his wife was intending to "send Rachel [a domestic slave, we suppose] to the market," that "he would not have it done for one thousand guineas," should have borrowed four thousand guineas at the end of the war in order to "stock his Georgia plantation with negroes," belongs doubtless to the "ignorance of the times," at which we must wink; but none the less must we deplore such a strange inconsistency in a Pennsylvania hero who might have learned better things from familiar association with his Quaker neighbors. The debt incurred by Wayne in "stocking his plantation with negroes" was to him the beginning of financial sorrows—from which he found relief only by abandoning the whole rice plantation which Georgia had given to him in testimony of her gratitude for deliverance from British domination.

Wayne was elected a member of the First Congress under the Constitution by a portion of the people of Georgia, but the election was unanimously vacated by Congress because of manifold informalities in the election and in the returns. Even when he was nominated by President Washington in 1792 as General-in-Chief of the Federal Army, we are told by Madison (the passage seems to have escaped the notice of Dr. Stillé) that the nomination, "it was said, went through the Senate rather against the bristles." On the whole, it would seem that Wayne carried through life what the poet calls an "importunate and heavy load," but he bore it with fortitude and he laid it off at last with the soldier's crown of rejoicing. He died on the 15th of December, 1796.

The Meaning and the Method of Life: A Search for Religion in Biology. By George M. Gould, A.M., M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

An accord between scientific and religious thought must come about, when it comes, chiefly by the natural, unforced development of each. We may hopefully strain all our efforts to find out the truth about special questions, but here we have to do with a great historical rearrangement of ideas, in which no single individual can count for much, and in which it is very undesirable that mere individual characters should have any influence. The most that volition can hope to accomplish is to turn the attention of scientific thinkers to those subjects of science, and the attention of religious thinkers to those aspects of religion, the study of which seems likely to moderate their antagonistic tendencies. It would seem, for example, that through biological studies science may be led to modify the existing mechanical theory of the universe, which is not at all requisite to its progress, but is merely the coloring which scientific thought acquired during the period beginning with Galileo and ending with Helmholtz's great dynamical memoir, when mechanics and allied branches of physics were the chief subjects of thought, and which in the new period that opened with Darwin is already beginning to be corrected. Many biologists are pleading to-day for the admission of genuine spontaneity. On the other hand, it would seem that studies of historical criticism, in an age in which truth can not only no longer be plugged up or stanched, but cannot be prevented from quickly filtering down from the great scholars among the clergy even to the most Philistine among the laity, must surely lead the churches to great retraction in the matter of infallibility. Now, these two things, mechanicalism and infallibilism, are the great obstacles to any common understanding between religious thinking and scientific thinking.

There is such a thing as mechanical infallibilism. Büchner's 'Kraft und Stoff' affords an example of what we mean. Scientific workers do not insist on anything as absolutely certain. There is not a more marked characteristic of the true scientific investigator than his perfect readiness to entertain any question which there is any possibility of settling by experiment. Indeed, "science" is an unfortunate designation for the department of civilized life that it denotes. It implies a body of knowledge. But it is not half so much knowledge that makes the scientific man as inquiry—the effectual wanting to know that involves the acknowledgment one does not know already. In the days of our childhood, before the present jargon came in, people talked of natural *philosophy;* and philo-sophy, or wanting to know, much better than science, describes the most precious endowment of the physicist or naturalist. But people who have learned the conclusions of the natural philosophers out of books are very proud to be called "scientists"; and a good name it is for them. They do not want to know, for they are cocksure already. We hear them reason every day as if natural selection, as the exclusive agency, not only in the development of animal and vegetable species, but of everything else, were a self-evident truth. The discovery of the conservation of energy may well be considered as the greatest achievement of natural philosophy. Yet, after all, we know nothing about it except what experience teaches us; and the experiential verifications of it, except in a few simple cases, do not attain any extraordinary degree of precision; while in regard to muscular work and brain activity there is little but analogy to lead us to think it so much as a close approximation to the truth. Every physical determination of a continuous quantity has its "probable error"; and the probable error of the equation which expresses the conservation of energy is large in comparison with those which express, for example, the three laws of motion. Nevertheless, we often find the "scientists" treating the law of the conservation of energy, in its extremest applications, the most remote from anything we can measure, as something it would be absurd to doubt. Such an opinion, which on the one hand sets up certain propositions as truth infallible and past all doubt, and which on the other hand leaves no possibility for motions not produced and completely swayed by blind mechanical force, may properly be termed mechanical infallibilism. It would seem a strange basis for any reconciliation between religion and science, being deeply hostile to the spirit of both. Yet it is upon this basis, in part at least, and by giving the name of God to an abstraction which it is not pretended has any sort of consciousness or exerts any sort of agency, that some of those who are endeavoring to bring about that reconciliation hope to effect it. Others, again, are aiming at a kind of compromise which would hamper science and mutilate religion, without at all furthering the purposes of either.

In strong contrast to all this is the genuine biologist's religion set forth by Dr. Gould in the book before us. To begin with, it is truly a religion, and no sham. Whoever believes anything like it must, no doubt, be filled with the spirit, if not of worship, yet of devotion, hearty, tender, and passionate; and for how many confessions can we say as much? Next, whether we accept the doctrine or not, we cannot but grant that it does truly spring, by methods of thought analogous to those of natural philosophy, out of observations of nature. Insisting upon the absolute distinction between living and lifeless things, Dr. Gould sees in the former an invisible Life, purposeful and intelligent. This is his god. He names him Biologos. He is a regular Aryan nature-god, very wise and clever, but existing in nature, not the creator of matter, and very far from being omnipotent.

"Every expression of Life we know shows process; difficulties unconquerable and difficulties conquerable, mastery by fate or ingenious partial conquering of fate—never a suggestion of omnipotence. The inference is quite clear, that if life were a worker in matter in all the past eternity, it would have been a more successful conqueror of it than is pathetically evident. The most patent aim of life is to win itself a home in worlds of inorganic matter, and to obtain progressive control of purely physical matter and forces. The fact that the success is only partial in our own world, that it has been attended with such difficulty and such expense (suffering, evil, death, reproduction, etc.), and that not more than two or three worlds of our solar system can possibly allow life a home in them, together with the certainty that like conditions exist everywhere else—all this points to the finiteness, if one may so speak, of God, and His struggle with adverse circumstances. But it also gives blessed reasons and incentives for sympathy with Him, and makes duty clear, unravels a thousand mysteries of our being here, makes religion a psychical as well as a biological necessity—indeed, forms the ground of an indissoluble and necessary identity of religion and biology."

Dr. Gould believes in his god without one shade of doubt, and with a fervid joy that would render his book delightful reading even if it were not filled with interesting suggestions gracefully and strikingly expressed. He really makes his doctrine decidedly attractive, at least for some of our moods. Doubtless, everybody has, at some time, envied the condition of our domestic animal pets. A mother's love is passionate, physiological, forced upon her. But a man's love for his dog is at once disinterested and voluntary. Though the dog does not reflect much, he does so enough fully to understand his relation to his master. Great comfort he takes in his master's love; but his greatest delight is in the reflection that, despite the man's incomparable and incomprehensible intelligence (of which the dog is quite aware), he is yet neither omniscient nor omnipotent, so that he, dog, is, or may be, positively helpful to the man. Now, the Biologos religion makes of a man God's dog.

It is little to say that there must be some truth in Dr. Gould's idea if there is any truth in religion; for every religion worthy the name represents a struggle between the god and some dark and baleful resistance. Faults in the theory are easily found. The first condition to which a hypothesis should conform is that it should be such that from it definite, verifiable predictions can be deduced. To deduce definite consequences from Dr. Gould's theory, it is requisite that the purpose of life should be formulated. Dr. Gould says this purpose is to conquer and govern matter. But is there no ulterior design? Is the barbaric delight in triumph all? The purpose of vitality should be discoverable by considering what growth in general, or the process of vitality, accomplishes. Certainly growth is not

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mainly an operation upon something outside; it is a development of the organism itself. Whatever be its formula, it is this that describes the great struggle of the universe, and it is this that the greatest myths seek to embody. But there are besides sundry other processes which have to be considered in any full philosophical study of the question.

Annals of My Life. 1847–1856. By Charles Wordsworth, D.D., D.C.L., Bishop of St. Andrews and Fellow of Winchester College. Edited by W. Earl Hodgson. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

Bishop Wordsworth's first intention was to publish his Memoirs in two volumes. Two would have been better than three, and one would have been better than two. All that is valuable in this volume and the 'Annals of My Early Life,' published a year ago, could have been compressed into a volume of half the size of this. Now another is promised detailing Dr. Wordsworth's life as Bishop of St. Andrews. The present volume was ready for the press before his death, December 5, 1892; for the next another will edit his materials, and perhaps more judiciously than he would himself have done it.

The volume before us offers much less to the general reader than the former one. It has an elaborate preface, in which the adverse critics of the previous 'Annals' are confronted with the conventional praises of critics who had perhaps kept their minds from prejudice, after the manner of Sydney Smith, by not reading the book. It also contains a lame attempt to make out some appreciable relation between the Bishop and Cardinal Newman. During the period from 1847 to 1856 Dr. Wordsworth was Warden of Trinity College at Glenalmond, Scotland, a new training school for Episcopalian boys, with ambition as much in excess of its proportions as that of the Western college of which Mr. Bryce has written, whose faculty consisted of "Mrs. Jones and myself." The charge was not a bed of roses. Dr. Wordsworth institutes a comparison between the Scotch and English boy. The Scotch boy has much less awe of his masters: one of them consulted the Doctor as to the best way of getting some good worms, as he was going fishing. Corporal punishment was administered, but the Scotch boys were squeamish about the exposure of their persons to the rod—as the English boys were not! The Bishop is at much pains to set forth the grounds of his refusal to vote for Gladstone to represent Oxford after his favoring the Roman Catholic College at Maynooth. He foresaw the beginning of the end—the disestablishment of the Irish Church. Gladstone, it will be remembered, was one of his Oxford pupils; one of a remarkable set.

Quite the most valuable part of this volume is its minute account of the circumstances of Dr. Wordsworth's election to the bishopric of St. Andrews. It is an extremely serviceable memoir for the students of ecclesiastical practices and amenities. There were seventeen electoral votes, including Dr. Wordsworth's as a presbyter of the diocese. Eight were cast for him and eight for another candidate. He decided the matter by voting for himself. Of course, he did not desire the office, but he had to be faithful to his friends, and not permit a party whose success would be injurious to the Church to triumph. Only the most inordinate vanity could set down the details of literary performance, private subscriptions, and friendly approbation that we have here. The future Thackeray or Trollope will find in this volume and in 'Annals of My Early Life' good material to work up into an ecclesiastical character.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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A Week at the Fair. Rand, McNally & Co. $2.
Archer, Thomas. The Highway of Letters and its Echoes of Famous Footsteps. London: Cassell; New York: Randolph. $2.
Baker, M. N. Sewage Purification in America. *Engineering News* Publishing Co.
Bartholow, Dr. Roberts. Cholera: Its Causes, Symptoms, Pathology and Treatment. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. & Co.
Black, H. C. Pomeroy on Water Rights. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Brontë, Charlotte. Villette. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Burton, Mrs. Isabel. The Life of Captain Sir Richard Burton. 2 vols. Appletons.
Dumas, A. Countess de Charny. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Edwords, C. E. Camp Fires of a Naturalist. D. Appleton & Co.
Fielding, Henry. Joseph Andrews. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Fuller, Anna. Pratt Portraits. Putnams. 50 cents.
Haggard, H. R. Nada the Lily. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Holt, Ben. Four Centuries After; or, How I Discovered Europe. Brentanos. $1.50.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. Aurangzib. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Jill, a Flower Girl. Whittaker. $1.25.
Official Hotel Directory of the U. S. Robert Rutten & Son. $3.
Philips, F. C. One Never Knows. Cleveland Publishing Co.
Putnam, S. P. Pen Pictures of the World's Fair. New York: *Truth Seeker* Co. 25 cents.
Rathborne, St. George. Mynheer Joe. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Scott, E. H. Journal of the Federal Convention Kept by James Madison. Chicago: Albert, Scott & Co. $5.
Scott, Sir W. The Monastery. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Sesselberg, Martha F. In Amazon Land: Adaptations from Brazilian Writers, with Original Selections. Putnams. $1.50.
Snell, F. J. Primer of Italian Literature. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Stearns, J. N. Temperance in All Nations. Vol. I. Historical. New York: National Temperance Society. $3.
The Monist. Vol. III. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $3.
The Story of Chicago: From the Log Cabin to the World's Fair. Chicago: F. P. Kenkel. 60 cents.
Todd, Mrs. Marion. Railways of Europe and America; or, Government Ownership. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Treat, J. H. The Treat Family: A Genealogy of Trott, Tratt, and Treat. Salem, Mass.: Press Publishing Co.
Trotter, Capt. L. J. The Earl of Auckland. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Trowbridge, W. R. H. Gossip of the Caribbees: Sketches of Anglo-West-Indian Life. Tait, Sons & Co. $1.25.
Vought, Dr. Walter. A Chapter on Cholera for Lay Readers. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co. 75 cents.
Wetherell, J. E. Later Canadian Poems. Toronto: Copp-Clark Co.
White, Matthew, Jr. One of the Profession. Home Book Co.
Willett, J. R. Heating and Ventilation of Residences. Chicago: *Inland Architect* Press. 50 cents.
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